

THE CANADIAN

WELFARE

SUMMARY

JUNE - JULY

Leading Articles

What Shall the Volunteer Do?

A Great Canadian Citizen

Pioneering Poor Relief in Nova Scotia

Organizing Neighborhoods

Social Service Exchange and
Public Welfare

What the Boy Thinks of the "Cop"

"Pauvre et Inquiete"

Storm in the Kindergarten

Other articles and notes
listed on inside page.

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
LAY PARTICIPATION IN SOCIAL WORK—Dr. G. F. Davidson	1
Discussion—Miss Gwendolyn V. Shand, Mrs. Jack Penbrake, Miss Mary Jennison, Miss Norma Touchburn	11
JAMES A. RICHARDSON	21
POOR RELIEF AND MEDICINE IN NOVA SCOTIA, 1749-1781—Miss Relief Williams	22
NEW GENERAL SECRETARY, NATIONAL Y.W.C.A.	30
<i>Maternal and Child Hygiene</i>	
DIARRHEA AS A FACTOR IN INFANT MORTALITY	31
NOTES FROM THE CANADIAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION CONVENTION	33
NEW BOOK ON CHILD STUDY	34
<i>Family Welfare</i>	
TWO NEW PAMPHLETS FOR FAMILY WORKERS	37
APPOINTED TO LONDON FAMILY SERVICE BUREAU	38
<i>Community Organization</i>	
NEIGHBORHOOD ORGANIZATION IN COMMUNITY PLANNING, LOUIS SERENE, MISS JOY A. MAINES	39
VALUE OF SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGE TO PUBLIC WELFARE STRESSED AT RECENT MEETING—Miss Elsie Bowden	42
KINGSTON FORMS COUNCIL OF SOCIAL AGENCIES	44
<i>Delinquency and Related Services</i>	
WHAT SEVERAL HUNDRED DELINQUENTS THINK OF THE POLICE—Harry Atkinson	45
<i>With the French-Speaking Services—Les Oeuvres de Charité Canadiennes-Françaises</i>	
PAUVRE ET INQUIÈTE—Jeanne Barabé	56
PETIT GUIDE DU TRAVAILLEUR SOCIAL	59
ORGANIZATION D'UN NOUVEAU COMITÉ CANADIEN-FRANÇAIS À OTTAWA	62
<i>With the Kindergartners</i>	
UNACCEPTABLE SOCIAL BEHAVIOR IS DISCUSSED	63
BOOK NEWS — SUMMER NEWS — TEACHER'S NOTEBOOK	67





The Canadian Welfare Summary

VOL. XV

OTTAWA, JULY 1939

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Lay Participation in Social Work*

DR. G. F. DAVIDSON

Director of Social Welfare, British Columbia

None of you will, I think, be likely to delude yourself to the point of believing that you are going to hear something startlingly new, or different on the subject of "Lay Participation in Social Work." A hasty glance through the pages of the National Conference Proceedings for almost any year reveals this time worn topic occupying a place of prominence and honour side by side with timely topics of the year which come and go. Even for the years where the topic is missing from the Proceedings, you will be sure to find the conference programme mentioning it: pause then a moment and bow your head in silent sympathy for the poor soul who struggled bravely to clothe the old ideas in fresh new phrases that might catch the editor's eye.

In the Kansas City Proceedings for 1934 we find a paper "Lay Participation in Social Work: New Opportunities for the Volunteer" presented by the then President of the Association of the Junior Leagues of America: some of what I have to say will come from that. Following closely on its heels comes a paper by Dr. Hertha Kraus on "Lay Participation in Social Work as it Affects the Public Agency": it is one of the most stimulating papers on the subject that has come to my attention. In 1935 we find a number of persons discussing the subject in Montreal; in 1936 Neva Deardorff, who has no superior, sketched in her typical brilliant fashion new areas for volunteer activity in community welfare programmes; in 1937, through the eyes of Sidney Hollander, we took a layman's look at social work and got a fascinating humorous picture of the problems of relationship in this field that would have gained him the award for the most brilliant paper of the year—except for the fact that the man who gave it was a layman.

And so it is through all the conferences, national, state, provincial, regional—large and small—the ever recurring problem of the layman's place in social welfare appears again and again at every stage of our

*An address delivered at Washington State Conference of Social Work, April 21, 1939.

thinking. Had Tennyson been familiar with the literature of social work he might well have written of this theme:

I baffle, baffle as I go,
Discussions finish never,
New themes may come, old themes may go,
But I go on for ever.

Who then am I, following in the footsteps of predecessors such as these, to venture anything that might be termed new or different? The printed pages of our social work literature give to all of you who have the time and the desire to study them, all that there is to know or even think about in this field. I conceive my task, therefore, to be, not that of a pioneer in a new field of thought or research, but rather that of a reminder—freshening up as best I can, redressing and rephrasing the old familiar truths that need repeating so much, and crystallizing out of the background of these vast resources the few thoughts which merit a particular emphasis at this stage in our development.

Contrasts With English Experience

Coming as I do from a country which stands at almost every point midway in its thinking between the two great English speaking nations of the world, I think that I should say first of all how greatly I am impressed by the remarkable contrast which exists between these two countries, England and the United States, as far as the layman's participation in social work is concerned. I received a visit a year or so ago from a lady who was the head of the largest private family agency in the city of Liverpool; and the thing that impressed her above all else in her visits to agencies in my country, was the meagre place accorded the volunteer or lay person in the active programme of social work in the community. Confirmation of this fact from other sources can be obtained by reference to an article, appearing in "Social Work Today" for June 1938, by a Canadian social worker, Miss Margaret Gould, who writes as follows:

"We say we like the English system because of their widespread, excellent voluntary services. Yet . . . although we profess deep admiration for the English voluntary system, nevertheless we place severe emphasis on the importance of 'professionalism' and training in social work, and the volunteer is not entrusted with any more than we can help."¹

By participation in the active programme, I mean direct and personal service to those in need, not the usual type of volunteer service on committees or boards, or activities a la Junior League to which we seem very largely to limit the activities of volunteers in our two countries.

¹Margaret Gould—We Do and We Don't in Canada—Social Work Today, June, 1938, p. 9.

In my own feeble way I tried to show the good lady from Liverpool that after all we did have a large extent of volunteer participation in our social work programme;—2,500 volunteer workers in our community chest drive, 500 or 600 board and committee members, volunteer leaders in group work agencies, a handful even in case-working agencies. I enlarged in traditional fashion upon the reasons why certain parts of the programme could hardly make use of volunteers—the confidential aspects of the cases, the clients' resentment of the lady bountiful attitude of volunteers whose money or time lies heavy on their hands: the unreliability of many of those lay workers whose concept of volunteer service is a place to spend an idle morning, if nothing else turns up, and, of course, the mystic abracadabra, the hocus-pocus—I almost said hokum-pocus—of the professional worker.

The lady from Liverpool remained unimpressed, and I think that I began to sympathize with her skepticism a bit when I learned that in her agency alone—a private family agency at that—no less than 400 or 500 volunteers—lay persons—were enrolled regularly as active workers, directly engaged in service that was a vital and integral part of the agency programme, visiting families, ministering, and doing so adequately, to the needs of the families with whom they came in contact, recognizing and referring problems requiring genuine professional skills to the nucleus of staff workers of the agency, but at the same time carrying a considerable load of responsibility that we in our countries would hardly dream of entrusting to the volunteer worker in our communities.

For what it is worth I give you the lady's own impression of the reason for the difference in approach in our countries to this question. She said: "You Canadians" (and might she not have said You Americans) "seem to have the idea that, whenever there is something that needs doing in your community that you yourself could go a long way in doing, the first thing you must do is, not do the job itself, but form an organization and have a secretary and staff to do the job for you."

Is There Excessive Delegation of Responsibility?

Let us continue for a moment with the suggestion implicit in the above statement that there has been an excessive delegation of responsibility from the lay person to the professional worker in regard to the social work problems of our community. Uncharitable souls might call it by other terms—"passing the buck," "getting out from under" personal responsibility and participation, having some one else to salve our community's social ills on our behalf or even "hogging the whole show," "dog in the manger attitude" on the part of the professional

worker. But we will call it merely "excessive delegation of responsibility" on the part of the lay person to the professional worker.

Is there evidence from other sources to confirm the suggestion that we on this continent are making insufficient use of lay workers? I think there is. The paper by Dr. Hertha Kraus which I have already mentioned gives a most interesting account of two German plans—the Elberfeld plan and the Strassburg system—where similar use is made of volunteer workers to the use that is made of them in Liverpool—family visiting, assessing of relief needs, case loads of four families to each volunteer, and this actually in public agencies, not private ones. I sometimes wonder why we in Canada, with vast numbers of totally untrained workers in our public relief agencies, struggling helplessly under impossible case loads of 200 to 300, do not stop kidding ourselves and recognize the fact that, altogether apart from the question of professional adequacy of trained workers, a proper use of volunteers in our public agencies along lines similar to those described in other European countries would meet the situation far more adequately than our present programme is able to do.

I am not one to be beguiled by fair promises of sensational economies in relief programmes, but I cannot help but be impressed by the statement that under such a system of volunteer visitors the cost of poor relief in the City of Elberfeld was cut more than 50 per cent in the first six months of its operation, with the further achievement of a much more individualized approach than we can claim in our mass relief programmes, something which in itself is one of the main objectives of professional social work.

I would not have it thought for one minute that I am skeptical of the values of professional training in social work. The professionally trained workers pay for their training in time and money. But it is the unfortunate client who pays for the training gained on the job by laymen such as myself who enter social work through the window or the chimney or the back or basement door, and bemoan ever afterward their lack of background and training for the job at hand. So I am not belittling in any way the role or value of the professional worker. But I am wondering whether we are utilizing to the fullest advantage at the present time either the talents or time of the professional worker, or of the lay person. The key to some of our difficulties at present lies in the fact that most of us have forgotten, due to our short sighted absorption in our tasks, the very wise words of one of the wisest of all our pioneers in social work, the late Mary Richmond—a truly professional worker if there ever was one—who said "The supreme test of a trained worker is the ability to turn to good account the services of the relatively untrained."

How many of us can say that this is in the forefront of our minds when we are considering the abilities of trained workers in these hectic days? How many of us rather tend to consider the skill of the worker in dealing directly with her cases—consider this fact indeed to the almost total exclusion of everything else; and yet how simple, how obvious, that a skilled and capable worker, able to project her ideals, skills, and leadership through a group of volunteers under her direct supervision can accomplish a vastly greater amount of work—yes, even case work—with a vastly greater case load receiving unhurried personalized individual service, than can that same worker mired under an intolerable load that Atlas-like she endeavours to carry entirely on her own sagging shoulders.

Knowing by Doing

In the words of Aeschylus, the oldest of the Greek tragedians, we find, it seems to me, a bridge between the first point I have emphasized and the one which I now desire to stress. "Only by personal experience do we attain to understanding"—and how can the layman ever be expected to have that deep sense of personal conviction, personal belief in social welfare principles, if he has been carefully isolated at all stages from direct contact with the problems faced by persons in need of service, if he has constantly allowed the professional worker to act as go-between, appointed by society to shuttle back and forth between the privileged and the underprivileged without bringing the one into contact with the other?

Many of the difficulties that social work has faced in obtaining what it conceives to be a proper understanding of its aims and purposes are due to the fact that we have forgotten one of the most fundamental facts in education—that individuals absorb theories and principles, the intangibles of any given situation, far less readily and completely than they grasp the significance of hard real facts—life situations with which they are brought face to face.

As Clare Tousley has said "Since progressive education has conclusively taught us that the only way a human being learns about anything that is new to him is to have first-hand contact with it so that it becomes a part of his feeling as well as his thinking, can we apply this to our field?"¹

I think the answer is that we can apply it, if we but will. We can apply it by seeing to it that our lay workers get opportunities that we have so long denied them for direct and personal participation in the problems of social work. We need not rub their noses in the worst of the problems that we have to meet, but we can at least ensure that

¹Case Work Principles in Interpretation—The Family, July, 1936, p. 174.

they get their feet good and wet. And the result will be, if we direct our courses aright, and give the leadership and supervision we should, increased understanding, increased support, and increased ability on the part of the laymen with whom we are working to interpret our programmes to the community at large.

In this, I am dealing perhaps with a more traditional and commonplace point in the discussion of my subject—the role of the layman as intermediary and interpreter of social work objectives to the community as a whole. But may I not ask how we can expect any really successful achievement of this particular function if we limit our layman's contact with social work to membership on boards, committees or volunteer service in secretarial work, driving committees and so forth. The best advertisement that social work can get is the intelligent support of the interested wide-awake layman who has helped another human being to meet his problem face to face, who has seen at first hand the difficulties of his fellow man, and who has responded to the sensitive yet compelling rein of competent professional leadership in reaching through co-operative effort the desired goal of insight into the problem of his fellow human being.

"But if our laymen are to be really interested, really informed and real interpreters, they must have had plenty of realistic concrete problems from which they can extract the large community implications."¹

The Layman's Role in Interpretation

It is in this field of interpretation that the interested and intelligent layman fills one of his most commonly accepted and at the same time important functions in the programme of social work. Through groups such as this the professional worker is enabled "to speak with the tongues of many" to the community as a whole. Just as the capable worker can direct and guide a group of lay workers in their contacts with families in need of service, so also can that same worker use a nucleus of lay persons as a means of communicating understanding of social work programmes to much larger sections of the citizenry than the social worker himself could ever hope to touch. Like a pebble dropped in a pool, the social worker makes but an insignificant splash, soon drops out of sight, but the ever widening ripples of influence generated through groups of volunteers permeate far and wide into the thinking of the whole community.

At this point some skeptic may arise and say, "that's all very well my friend, a very fine metaphor, what with the social worker going down for the third time and the ripples on the surface and all that, but what about the lasting effect of it all? Does this so-called interpretation

¹Clare Tousley—*ibid.* p. 175.

on the part of the layman accomplish anything fundamental and real in the community's approach to social problems?"

My view is that it does, or at least that it can, and for two very simple reasons. First of all it is a surprising fact, but true, that to influence the thinking of an entire community does not require anything like the conversion of each person individually. It requires only the conversion of the key persons—1,000 is a large number for any city—who directly or indirectly control that community's thinking on any given subject. These leaders or moulders of public opinion are to be found in all walks of life—clergymen, bankers, newspapermen, politicians, labour leaders, social leaders, university professors—and they constitute the body of lay people to whom we must communicate a sense of partnership in the aims, objectives and accomplishments of social work, if social work is to be accepted as a part and parcel of our community life. This job of converting these key leaders to our cause is not in any way an easier one, because we find represented in this group all the clashing interests of the community at large. But at least we see here in concentrated form the forces of the community that we as social workers must either work with or cope with if we are to fulfil our purpose of keeping our programme closely attuned to the feeling of the community which after all supports, in one way or another, everything we do.

Importance of Moulding Community Feeling

My other reason for believing that the layman's job of interpretation can influence profoundly the community's attitude on social welfare problems is rather a paradoxical one, in view of what I have already said about the need of personal understanding and conviction as a prerequisite of proper interpretation. While this is undoubtedly true, it is also true that the attitude of most individuals and consequently most community groups towards any given issue is not so much a rational as an emotional attitude. Perhaps not one person in a hundred will really understand a particular issue in social work. But 99 out of that same hundred will almost certainly have some emotional bias or feeling in regard to it. The reason for this is not far to seek: social work issues are highly complex and are not thoroughly understood by those of us who live our lives enmeshed in them. The general intelligence level of the public is not very high. How then can we expect the public at large to make any really intelligent appraisal of the issues in face of these two indisputable facts? Obviously we cannot. We have to follow, therefore, the alternative course of building up a vague sort of emotional acceptance—a generally favourable, warm, satisfied feeling towards social work objectives—in the minds of the public, and we do this by seeking out the bell-wethers of the

flock and guiding their steps into paths of righteousness as far as social work thinking goes — if it does indeed go along paths of righteousness at all—so that all the others may follow after.

Our job is then the job of leading the leaders; and our professional training, as far as the interpretation of social problems to the community is concerned, serves chiefly to ensure that this does not become a procession of the blind.

In the field of *interpretation*, therefore, as well as in the field of direct *participation*, the lay worker has a job to do, and in both cases if we but realized it, the lay worker can find a much simpler, much more natural approach to the solution of the problem than can the professional. The right type of friendly visitor—I almost said good neighbour—calling as a fellow citizen, not as a paid worker—nor, mind you, as a Lord or Lady Bountiful—evokes a response that only a lay worker can bring forth; and a lay person, speaking with sincerity, intelligence and conviction on social welfare issues or agency programmes, carries weight with other lay persons all the more because he speaks as an ordinary citizen, with no suspicion of an axe to grind. The lay person pleading the cause of social work “comes into court with clean hands,” and once again confirms the wisdom of the social worker’s operating through others in influencing community thinking on social problems.

Preparation for Adequate Trusteeship

If what I have said thus far on the two points of active participation and interpretation by laymen seems to imply too obviously that in respect to both functions the lay worker is to be thought of as merely a tool or stooge of the professional, let me hasten to correct that misapprehension by passing on to another point which places a contrasting emphasis upon the relationship. To a certain extent, it is undoubtedly true that the lay worker is a tool or resource available to the professional as a means of fulfilling his appointed function, but in another sense, and one that is equally true, the professional remains the tool of the lay person and this relationship is best exemplified in what I choose to call the trustee or administrative function of the volunteer on agency boards, committees and in similar positions of policy formation and social work leadership. Here, if no where else in social work, we find the lay person still in the driver’s seat: the professional worker, like man, “proposes” what seems to be indicated as sound community policy: but the lay person, God-like, “disposes” and determines what that policy shall finally be.

The function of the layman on the board of an agency, it seems to me, is like the individual in Plato’s ideal republic, to be so far as

possible an epitome of public opinions and beliefs in the community itself. Here the lay worker acts as a sounding board of public opinion against which the professional may reliably project his plans, policies and theories, to judge in advance the reactions of the community at large to suggested policies or changes. And it is the supreme test of the efficiency of an agency board that it can weigh from the point of view of the community the plans that are laid before it, resolve any conflicts between the professional ideals of social work, its own deep-seated knowledge of what is just and equitable, and the limitations set upon the community's mental outlook by ignorance and prejudice, in such a way that a policy is shaped that stands the rigid test of all three standards.

Here, too, the role of the layman as the sounding board of public opinion, the determiner of policy, has a close relationship to the functions of active participation and interpretation that I have already mentioned. For how can a lay person be safely entrusted with the responsibility of evaluating agency programmes and determining broad policies unless he has had some basic training, some active personal contact with the individual problems that lie behind the determination of any policy? Active participation in the mechanics of social work, vitalizing personal contact with social problems, is a necessary prelude to the development of ability to pass judgment on broad lines of policy.

No man can hope with Matthew Arnold to "see life steadily and see it whole" unless he has had some personal experience with living a full and rich life of his own. Nor can any one hope to do a good job as a member of the board, planning and developing agency policy, unless he has had a previous background of active participation which gives perspective and a sort of fourth dimension to his judgment. And at the other end of the scale, in the lay worker-community relationship, the same holds true; it is the worker who has had a real and vital share, based on personal knowledge, in the formulation of agency policy, who can best go forth and justify that policy to the less well-informed sections of the community. "Volunteers with a knowledge of social work are often the social engineers in a community. Then training enables them to see the need for a good social programme . . . and it is often the case that the laymen educated in social work, and not the professionals, are responsible for initiating an adequate social work programme in a community."¹

Perhaps, if I stop short, and satisfy myself with the emphasis that has been laid on these three points,—*active participation, trustee responsibility and interpretation*,—I will be accused of over-simplifying the contribution that the layman can make in the field of social work. I will have to take this risk, I fear,—not that I am unaware of the

¹Social Work Year Book, 1935—Volunteers in Social Work, p. 544.

contributions that lay workers can make in other lines. One field, for example, where the role of the volunteer remains unchallenged—and for obvious reasons—a field indeed where the lay worker is allowed the privilege of a practical monopoly, unwelcome though it may be—is in, what after all is a *fairly* important part of the total job—the little matter of financing our social welfare programme. The layman is the man who in the last analysis pays the shot. When we realize that this point of control, and also the ultimate control of agency policy in the field of private social work are both vested in the layman, such a truth must bring home to us, more than anything else can do, the vital part which the lay person, willy-nilly, must play in the achievement of the goals of our profession. Quoting Clare Tousley once again—"as realists perhaps it will be well to remember that it is the citizen tax-payer, the contributor, the politician, the laymen of our town who in the last analysis determine the quality of life for our community. It is not the social worker. Realistic social workers will, therefore, take the initiative in seeking a partnership with these laymen . . . Theirs is the responsibility for the community's life—not ours. We would do better not to try to dictate or superimpose but rather to help the citizens get a more rounded and deeper view of community problems and with it the desire for change, we ourselves offering the enabling machinery."¹

A Widespread Movement to Increase Lay Participation

One other defence I would crave your indulgence in allowing me to set up, before I finish and some friendly critic gets a chance to draw a bead on me. I am not by any means unaware of the fact that some at least of the generalizations I have made, especially with regard to the active participation of volunteers in the day to day problems of social work, have but a limited application to this part of the country. I realize that your friendly visitor programme in the State of Washington is intended as a step in the direction of meeting this urgent need of bringing lay citizens face to face with the needs and problems of social work. I realize also that the last few years have seen a revival of interest in the place that the layman holds in the field of social work. The first edition of the Social Work Year Book, for example, has nothing on the volunteer in social work, while the ones since 1933 give considerable space to a discussion of the problem. The formation of the National Committee on Volunteers in Social Work in 1932 and the creation of a score or more of "central volunteer bureaus" in larger cities show that an active effort is being made to readjust the volunteer or layman to the new scheme of things that developed for social work with the onset of the great depression. The most hopeful sign of all, to me at least, is the extent to which public agencies are turning to lay

¹Clare Tousley—op. cit. p. 174.

groups, setting up advisory committees or boards, similar to the administrative boards of private social work, to serve the two fold purpose of advisory bodies and interpreters to the community at large of public social work as seen from the inside.

All these are hopeful signs, and even though one might be pardoned for thinking that in a way they are efforts born of desperation as we see the volunteer, the layman, removed farther and farther from the root of things—even though this may be so, they none the less do serve to indicate that professional social work is at last awake to the danger that it faces if it continues its past trend of isolating laymen more and more from social work; and that professional social work, at last awake to this, realizes the importance of the layman's contribution keenly enough to be even desperate in its efforts to win back for him a place in the social work sun.

If this belated realization of the layman's importance is keen enough, if the layman's appreciation of the sterling qualities of the professional worker, and of the principles underlying our steadily growing public welfare programmes, can be made to penetrate deep enough then I feel that the contribution of the layman, through widespread participation in social work, can be made to develop in quantity and in quality to a point far exceeding any of the contributions it has made in the past, and that that contribution, changing perhaps its emphasis from time to time can be counted on to develop steadily in strength and intensity for years to come.

Canadian Workers Comment on "Lay Participation"

SEVERAL Canadian social workers and one volunteer have taken time off to contribute to the cause of "lay participation" by responding to our invitation to comment on Dr. Davidson's discussion of the volunteer's role, and we are privileged to publish these comments on the following pages.

Miss Gwendolyn Shand is at present Executive Secretary of the Halifax Council of Social Agencies and has had a wide experience with welfare agencies—and the use of volunteers—in the United States. She also has had the opportunity to spend a valuable period of observation work with welfare services in Great Britain. Mrs. Pembroke is a well known volunteer worker in Montreal whose successful contributions in many fields of endeavour have added to the lustre of the volunteer's role in Canadian Welfare.

Miss Mary Jennison is the executive head of an agency whose sole function is to put these grand theories to the test—the Montreal Volunteer Service Bureau, now in its second year of successful operation as a training and placement centre for volunteers. Miss Norma Touchburn is the Supervisor of the Division of Family Welfare, Neighbourhood Workers Association of Toronto, the largest family service agency in Canada which has been outstandingly successful in its use and training of volunteers for many services. M.B.

Could We Find A "Happy Medium" in Canada?

DR. DAVIDSON's paper brings up many interesting points for discussion. Perhaps one of the most important from the point of view of social work in Canada, is that of the use of volunteers as case work aides.

In England it is simpler to use volunteers in this capacity for several reasons. In the first place, aside from the Child Guidance Clinics and similar developments, case work is not so often on the "intensive" level as much of that in our larger cities. This type of case work cannot be done by the ordinary volunteer.

As a second point we must realize that in England the volunteer has a long tradition of service behind her; probably her mother or other relatives have given such services to some caseworking agency, and she knows some of the fundamental ideas before she in turn takes up such work. In other words, she does not have to be trained "from the ground up."

The third point is that because the whole of social work is organized on this basis in England, it is a much easier matter to fit the volunteer into the picture.

Having made these points, we may say that the services rendered by the volunteer in England are of immeasurable value and that most people attribute the early enactment of social welfare legislation by that country to the influence of volunteers.

There is no doubt that we should make use of lay people in increasing numbers in Canada, and we need to place them in positions of greater responsibility involving direct contact with actual social problems. How can we accomplish this without endangering our standards of case work and yet give the volunteer work of real importance to carry out? In the first place we would suggest a careful selection of cases to be given the volunteer. From personal experience with a

situation in the United States, when volunteers were used to pay friendly visits on newly arrived immigrants regularly referred to a casework agency, such contacts by the lay person can be highly successful. There are many other instances where a "neighbourly", friendly connection with a client is the main thing needed. Such cases might be those of elderly people, many cases involving chronic illness, single women who are lonely, and cases where regular allowances are being sent to some family in which there are few problems except those of financial need. It would seem that volunteers could be used with good results in Departments of Mothers' Allowances, of Old Age Pensions, and of Pensions for the Blind, at least for some of their cases. Volunteers as a sort of "big brother" or "big sister" to young people in certain families have been used successfully when carefully chosen.

Having selected the right type of case for the volunteer, the next thing is to arrange for proper supervision of her activities. We social workers firmly believe the young worker and the student should have ample opportunity to consult with the supervisor; it is just as important for the volunteer to have that guidance too. By "supervisor" we mean anybody who has supervision over less experienced workers. A definite time should be set aside for the volunteer each week for a conference with the supervisor, and the latter should put just as much thought and planning into this conference as in any she may have with the students under her care. This, too, will give the supervisor excellent opportunities for explaining the fundamental principles of casework, and of giving the volunteer knowledge of other fields of social work.

The volunteer should as often as possible be present at the regular case conference, or staff meeting, or whatever it may be called. She should have an opportunity not only to discuss cases, but to present one occasionally herself. In England one cannot help but be impressed by the regular attendance and intelligent discussion of volunteers at the case conferences of the various agencies with which they work. It is evident they feel themselves a part of the staff with the sense of responsibility that such a position entails.

At the present stage of development of most of our Canadian Relief Departments, it would seem best to use volunteers in their work mostly in the capacity of advisory boards. That these can be really useful is shown by recent yearly reports of the Unemployment Assistance Boards of Great Britain. In the United States young people of good education but no training in social work have been used successfully as visitors for the Public Relief Departments, but under the supervision of well qualified and well trained supervisors. It is true these young people hold paid positions, but their educational background has been that of the intelligent volunteer.

In conclusion we can say that in Canada we must develop our own technique for the use of volunteers, and as Dr. Davidson says,—that technique may be halfway between that of England and of the United States. Because we have used volunteers to a greater extent than they have in the United States, we do not have the same fear and hesitancy in giving them more responsible work to do. At the same time, we have to go more slowly than they do in England because of the points already mentioned.

To use volunteers effectively in a case work agency will take in the early stages much time and much imagination on the part of those supervising them. But it will be worth the effort. The volunteer is the natural link between the professional and the lay public, the best interpreter. Moreover the volunteer understands the limitations of the community more than the professional worker, and can assist her in the logical development of social work.

GWENDOLYN V. SHAND.

Theoretical Partnership Now Accepted . . . But Needs Better Application

DR. DAVIDSON seems to have made a case for the volunteer, which seems to me to be open to little or no criticism; as a volunteer in a good many fields of social practice in the last decade, I thoroughly appreciate the soundness of Dr. Davidson's reasoning.

One must go back many years to get to the root of his lay participation problem. In the early days, social work was entirely lay work; gradually, professional participation became professional control. The pendulum swung again and today we have, I think, an almost complete *theoretical* partnership between professional and lay, with perhaps a little stronger emphasis on the professional side. It is on the practical side that this ideal relationship shows occasional signs of stress.

I agree with Dr. Davidson that there is, and should be, a definite place for the volunteer in every good social work programme, and I think that perhaps we volunteers may ourselves be to blame if we are not sufficiently active in participation. It is, and has always been, our unquestioned business to elect board members—who, in the last analysis (as Clare Tousley says), control the social work programme. But what have we done? We have in so many cases chosen those members for their social prestige, for their money raising and contributing ability, for many reasons other than their knowledge of community needs. I am firmly convinced that no person should ever be elected to board membership, who has not first given some sort of "field" service of a

practical and responsible kind. If adopted and adhered to, such a method would almost certainly dispel any lingering doubts on the part of the trained worker as to the dependability of her voluntary help and board members.

Professional workers have been cruelly busy in the past few years—case loads have steadily mounted to almost unbearable levels. Meanwhile, the volunteer, anxious and ready to give a hand, has “had no training” and is therefore deemed to be of little use. When the professional realizes that a volunteer can make a real contribution to even a case work programme, she will more readily be willing to spend the necessary time in supervising the “training” of volunteers.

Isn't it possible that with these heavy burdens of responsibility, entailing as they have done over-time work, exhausted nerves, and perhaps abnormal living conditions, the viewpoint of the professional may be just a little bit jaded, her enthusiasm dulled? In contrast, the volunteer is living a relatively normal, unrushed, unhurried life, dealing with personal family problems in many cases akin to those with which the professional is in daily contact. Why, with proper direction, and expert guidance, should not the volunteer become a real partner in helping to solve some of these human puzzles? Dr. Davidson, an outstanding professional worker, asserts that there is a real place for the volunteer in the practical social work of today and I most heartily endorse his view.

As volunteers, we realize our limitations, and our unsuitability for certain fundamental jobs, but we do believe that, in a good partnership of lay and professional, we have a contribution to make, and a responsibility we want to accept, if the professional worker will go along hand in hand—spoon feeding us for a time, letting us try our wings, and making us feel that we are needed. We can be of service, and we can in the end be intelligent interpreters to that part of the world which forms the community in which we live.

—GENEVIEVE L. PEMBROKE.

It All Comes Down to . . .

“What Are We Here For Anyway?”

IT IS A LOT more fun and much easier to discuss the ideas which someone else has laboured to bring to birth, than it is to produce the ideas in the first place. So perhaps, accepting this admission, Dr. Davidson will not mind if I do my little bit of “view-airing.”

The first question I should like to ask him is “What are Volunteers for?” because on the answer depends one's whole response, whether it

is passive resignation—"The volunteer is here and something must be done about it—preferably by somebody else but me"—or dynamic acceptance—"Here is an opportunity, not to farm out some tiresome chores, but to provide a stimulating experience, through that experience to develop a citizen, more sympathetic, more understanding and more intelligent about what is going on in his community and in his country." If enough citizens of that type can be developed, things will change in Canada. When many people know and understand what we know and try to understand, know not as statistics in a book, but as living human experience, it is inconceivable that nothing will happen. Canada must become a safer, happier, more secure place in which to live. That thesis seems to me to throw responsibility straight back on the shoulders of the professional worker and postulates a second question.

"For what and for whom is the professional worker working?" If social work is just a job like any other, a comparatively honest way of earning a living, then on that lowest plane, the social worker needs to watch his step. Jobs depend on wide social-work programmes. Social-work programmes depend on money. Money comes from those who have it, whether through taxes or contributions. Those who have money usually also have leisure to be volunteers. If they are shut out from participation, if they, as members of boards and committees receive diluted milk-and-water reports, concocted by the professional according to what *he* thinks the volunteer "can take," the chances are fairly good for budget committees clamping down on new projects, or in times of stress, restricting the scope of old ones. So in the professional worker's own self-interest, it seems wise to spread participation in, and therefore understanding of his particular function just as widely as possible.

If, on the other hand, the social worker ranks with the great majority who see their jobs as part of a much wider issue, who carry, along with the responsibility to serve people in trouble, a wider responsibility for rousing public opinion on social issues, so that these things need not be, then his best ally is the volunteer working right along with him, seeing from personal observation "bread-lines standing knee-deep in wheat," learning that there is no arbitrary division between the poor and the rest of us and going out to do something about it.

If the social worker is truly working for his client, then he will welcome every opportunity to teach, supervise and use intelligent volunteers.

From personal experience with some two hundred Junior League volunteers, I should like to take friendly issue with Dr. Davidson's comment about "welfare activities a la Junior League." I should not

think it possible to find anywhere a group of girls and young women more keenly interested in social services, more anxious to learn and more conscientious in the performance of their obligations than the members of the Junior League with whom I have been working for the past eighteen months. But, again, the ultimate responsibility rests with us, the social workers. It is our job to canalize that vitality and enthusiasm, to use it and develop it. By our own interest and with our skills, to mould and direct the sympathetic emotionalism of youth into disciplined intelligent social action. Of course it takes time and patience. It means preventing mistakes before they happen, restraining generous impulses and explaining why. It means, sometimes, disorganization of our own work because Mrs. Fitzgerald's maid's sister died and Mrs. Fitzgerald has to take care of the baby on the day she had promised to drive us to clinic. But that is all part and parcel of our case-work philosophy. We talk about beginning where the client is, but what about beginning where the volunteer is? And isn't this all fundamental to our job?

Recently, I sat in conference with an eminent American social worker. It was following the National Conference of Social Work in Buffalo, where the need for bigger and better volunteer participation permeated the programme. This social worker questioned the emphasis placed on the subject. It was, she said, a hanging-on to an outworn system. As professionals became more professional, they had less need for volunteers. Because we were afraid to face this fact, because the place of the volunteer was becoming increasingly less important, we were discussing and re-discussing a dead issue. I have great respect for the opinion of that worker, but I believe her position is not realistic. Perhaps the time may come when social work no longer requires lay understanding and lay support. Perhaps as government services grow, social welfare will become, like education, an integral and accepted part of the nation's programme. That is in the realm of speculation. Here and now, we know that welfare services are not understood in our communities. We know, moreover, that conditions leading to the need for these services are still less understood and we know that knowledge is best acquired by first-hand experience.

I quote from an article, written by a volunteer, in the Junior League Magazine of March, 1939, entitled "Why be a Volunteer?"

"I have learned only this, that facing realities with people who need my help brings the moral certainty that nothing is worth fighting for or worrying about except the right of all people everywhere to health and food and warmth and peace in which to live."

Isn't that the answer to the whole question of volunteer participation?

—MARY JENNISON.

A Family Work Agency Demonstrates

SEVERAL ASPECTS of Dr. Davidson's paper stimulate thought, such as his inability to accept wholly from "the Lady from Liverpool", the sweeping comparison between her use of large numbers of volunteers in case work in a family agency, and our limited use in similar agencies in Canada and the United States. Although it is a year since her visit here we recall vividly that we were similarly baffled after discussions with her. There are others who also make such comparisons and we feel that the professional worker and layman in Canada should clarify the justice of this criticism of ourselves and understand more clearly from our point of view, the basis of the comparison.

We wonder too if there are many volunteers nowadays such as Dr. Davidson describes "who are unreliable and whose concept of volunteer service is a place to spend an idle morning if nothing else offers". Are they not becoming practically extinct as we as professional workers see the need of a real challenge in the jobs we ask them to undertake? Is it possible that we are accepting volunteers in a more understanding and intelligent fashion?

Dr. Davidson's paper stimulates us to draw a clear picture of the participation of the volunteer of the Neighborhood Workers Association "in a vital and integral part of the programme, which means direct and personal service to those in need". During the years when the Neighborhood Workers Association administered unemployment relief, there was need for large numbers of volunteers in many capacities. When in 1934 this administration was assumed by the Department of Public Welfare, the responsibility of the Neighborhood Workers Association was equally heavy, though for a smaller number of families, but we were threatened with the loss of many of our volunteers who felt there was no longer a big enough job for them. Five years later in 1939 we find ourselves giving more satisfying opportunities for service to 575 volunteers, the largest number we have ever had. This number includes those 400 volunteers giving direct service to individuals at Bolton Camp and who there, catch their first glimpse of social work.

In describing the service of those who are in direct contact with families, we pass lightly over that large group who act as board members, committee members, publicity specialists, and who answer telephones, give motor service and very necessary clerical assistance.

Last year our volunteers were entirely responsible for giving out directly to our families, 41,589 articles of used clothing in our Clothing Centre, and they managed to send people away happy a large part of

the time. None but the best volunteers and the most understanding can last here where respect for the individual is of highest importance.

Dozens of the volunteers have helped to teach sewing and handicrafts in our sewing centres to mothers, teen age and school age girls. They have improved the appearance of many of the girls by classes in deportment and personal hygiene.

Throughout our experience in the Family Case Work Department only a small number of the volunteers coming to us with an offer of service, are willing to take responsibility for planning with families in their homes. We feel that they have themselves set a high standard of service as the only kind valuable to families in sufficient difficulty to turn to an agency for assistance in planning. Some openly disapprove of "the ill-advised and fumbling attempts", of some of their friends who try to be "just good neighbours" to their charwomen and their friends! Year in and year out however, we have convinced a small number of our best volunteers of their ability to help constructively as case work aides. Among these are the graduates in household economics, married and free to visit and become the intelligent "good neighbour" who shares ways and means of comfortable home-making—including budgeting, preparation of food and diets, as well as the skilful handling of husbands and children. The artistic volunteer goes into another woman's home and gives the talented child lessons in art or music or tutoring for special courses. The only daughter of elderly and wealthy parents naturally likes and works well with old people and invalids. She may work out a travelling lending library by which she delivers new books, or plans an exchange of gramophone records until she secures radios. Each of these represents a group which gives a direct service that stands out and each in turn interprets and recruits.

Four years ago the Junior League of Toronto came to us with the offer of a group of 16 volunteers, some married and some not, who were willing to visit in homes and enter into partnership with our case workers in plans which in their own words "would rehabilitate drab and unattractive homes and so in some measure encourage disheartened men and women". They brought a donation of funds as well as service with which to carry out this rehabilitation. Sixteen volunteers were accepted in 1934 and 7 of these have continued to work in our districts for the 4 years and 10 of them for 3 years. The size of the group has increased yearly and last year consisted of 22.

Each case work aide is assigned to one of our 10 district offices and the district secretary is responsible for the interpretation of our function and the part which the case work aide may play. She is then under the supervision of a case worker and after first visiting with her, gradually assumes greater or less responsibility for some share of the

planning with a family. Naturally other results followed this practical effort of rehabilitation besides fresh chintz, enough chairs and dishes for all the family to enjoy a meal together, nice living-room furniture and enough beds and bedding for comfortable nights; shopping tours with the mother or older children, with lunch thrown in and complete responsibility for Christmas and holiday plans. Three of this group took complete responsibility in co-operation with a case worker, for one family each and carried through successful treatment for from one to three years. The responsibility for recording was also assumed.

Each case work aide gives at least half a day a week in her district and on alternate Fridays two hours in a meeting of the group at Central Office where an exchange of experience takes place and further supplementing of the training given in the district is possible.

Attendance at meetings of various kinds is also encouraged, including case conferences, where greater understanding is gained of the community welfare programme.

We feel that the continuous service of our group of case-work aides has been a valuable one and one that has been much appreciated by the families into whose homes we have introduced them. One man in writing to one of them from Finland, where she had assisted in plans to return him, puts his feeling rather neatly. "I have been thinking of you today and the way you have helped me to regain independence for my family and that makes me think of Miss H. of the Neighborhood Workers Association. Do you still co-operate with her? You both made a fine and successful partnership." The Chairman of this Junior League group in an annual report says of this partnership, "The League member has appreciated the knowledge of and experience in the work which will continue for the member's life."

The responsibility of supervision and training is a heavy one for the case-worker but her case-work aide supplements and often enlivens her service and this has become an integral and valuable part of our agency programme.

—NORMA TOUCHBURN.

"SOCIAL WORK must always be dependent upon the attitude and joint thinking of both lay people and professional workers . . . for if we reach a point where all social work is under the complete control of professional social workers, we still must accept the philosophy that people who are being served represent a lay group whose voice becomes all-important in any consideration of general national policy." (*From "Amateurs and Professionals", an Address by Edward L. Ryerson, Jr., to the National Conference of Social Work, June 1939*).

James A. Richardson

CANADA could not produce a more typical Canadian than James Armstrong Richardson, who, as he would probably have chosen, fell, practically in action, as he was preparing to go to his office on Monday, June 26th. Mr. Richardson had been associated with the Canadian Welfare Council as a member of the Board of Governors from its early days as the Council on Child Welfare. His letter of acceptance, at that time was indicative of the sense of citizenship which carried him into every phase of this country's life and undoubtedly taxed even his magnificent strength beyond its limits. "Your work is necessary to this country", he wrote, "it deserves support and I am glad to help it and to try to get others to help it."

No name has been more proudly borne in Canadian mercantile story than that of James Richardson & Sons, grain merchants, of Kingston, founded by Mr. Richardson's grandfather, and through three generations bound up with Canadian development. The pride of race, of calling, and of country met in Mr. Richardson, bred in the oldest of settlements of Upper Canada, graduate, friend and chancellor of one of her greatest universities, and passionately devoted son, by adoption of the West.

Great of frame, but light of step, strong and clear of mind, direct and vigorous in speech, "Jim" Richardson looked the part of a leader of men in new lands. Of buoyant and generous nature, he had a high sense of stewardship which placed his help and wealth at the service of his church, his country and his fellowmen. Particularly was he the champion of the West, and never more so than in these, its later stricken years. While the West had its people, the West had its strength, he would argue, and the West would "come back". To those who demurred and opposed its cause, he had the unanswerable argument of possibly having more wrapped up in the prairies than any other man in the country.

His love of honour and of truth, his contempt for anything small or mean, his decent righteousness were as patent as his rollicking laughter, and his boyish frankness. There were other and lesser men who did not shrink from taking advantage of these qualities. He knew and named them, but not with reviling: rather with regret that trust and position and Canada should be let down,—and with an abiding faith that time was the most unfailing of all judges. His faith and determination were contagious: it was good just to meet Jim Richardson for a sense of strength and security emanated from the man.

There was no one in all Canada who knew this country or could serve her better than James Richardson. His death, in the prime of

life, and in this time of the Dominion's need is a tragedy which cannot but affect our entire national fabric, particularly in Western Canada. The sympathy which goes out to Mrs. Richardson, who to an unique degree shared her husband's life and greatness, and to their children, is deep and real, and the deeper in that every informed Canadian has a keen sense of personal grief in what is truly a whole people's loss.

C.W.

Poor Relief and Medicine in Nova Scotia 1749-1783*

PART I—POOR RELIEF

RELIEF WILLIAMS

NO SOCIETY is free from those helpless individuals who through illness, old age, mental defects, shiftlessness or bad luck, are dependent on the charity of their fellow citizens. Pre-Loyalist Nova Scotia seems to have had more than her share of these unfortunates, and she dealt with them in typical eighteenth century fashion. The economic condition of the province and the character of a part of the population combined with certain actions of the government to increase the number of undesirables. For example the Council, observing that "it seems to be one of the ends and advantages of New Colonys to serve as a refuge to unfortunate debtors that by labour and industry they may have an opportunity to retrieve their fortunes and be again useful", was disposed to offer certain privileges to such persons, although "it was observed on the other side that a regulation of this sort makes a colony the refuge of Cheats, Rogues and fraudulent Bankrupts".

The result of their deliberations was a resolution that settlers were not to be liable for debts contracted previous to their emigration except for goods imported into the colony. This resolution was made law by the first Assembly in 1758, and continued in force until August 28, 1762. It was revived in the session of October 1763 "in favour only of those persons . . . who have come into this Province and have been under the protection and sanction of the aforesaid laws before the said twenty eighth day of August one thousand seven hundred and sixty two", and was continued until 1769. Such a regulation was bound to attract the unscrupulous as well as the honest, and one of the first

*A paper read before the Nova Scotia Historical Society.

concerns of the Assembly was an attempt to check this undesirable immigration. An Act "to prevent the importing disabled, infirm and other useless persons into the Province" was intended to mitigate the evil; but it was repealed by His Majesty because the terms of description were too loose and the penalty to be inflicted on masters of vessels at the discretion of overseers of the poor, too great. A similar Act without these defects was submitted for royal approval in 1768, and was again disallowed. The result was an "Inundation of persons who are not only useless but very burdensome to the Community, being not only those of the most dissolute manners, and void of all Sentiments of honest Industry, but also Infirm, decrepit, and insane, as well as extremely indigent persons, who are unable to contribute anything toward their own maintenance. . . ."

Early Problems in Halifax

Halifax, the capital and chief port of a province whose contact with the outside world depended entirely on water communication, was the chief sufferer from these "inundations." Many a ship left behind some of her most undesirable passengers, and indigent immigrants, intended for the out-settlements, were loath to leave the source of government philanthropy. Even some of those who did settle in the outlying districts seem to have gravitated to Halifax as their fortunes declined, for in 1767 the overseers of the poor complained that many of their charges belonged to different parts of the province, and that it was unfair to tax the Haligonians for their support. Then, too, the presence of the army and navy led to certain social problems.

When the troops came to Halifax after the evacuation of Boston in 1776, they brought with them more than 2,000 camp-followers, and even before that time the authorities complained that "great inconveniences have arisen, from the numbers of Idle, helpless and indigent Women left in this Town by Regiments on their departure from this Province, together with a very heavy expense to the Inhabitants for their support and maintenance"; it was requested that "the Women which have been brought here by the Troops may be obliged to embark with them." Obviously such an overwhelming number of dependent persons was out of all proportion to the permanent population, and it is little wonder that "the Industrious Inhabitants, especially of the Town of Halifax, esteem themselves subject to a grievous tax thereby, and are disabled from affording the Relief they are willing to do to their honest poor."

How did the infant colony meet these financial obligations? In the early years provisions were supplied to the inhabitants of Halifax and Lunenburg at the expense of the imperial government, and the extreme poverty of the settlers, particularly the foreign Protestants, forced the

authorities to continue the supply much longer than was at first intended. When these provisions were finally discontinued, the provincial government took over the care of the indigent until an Act was passed in 1763 "to enable the Inhabitants of the several Townships within this Province to maintain their Poor."

As long as the provincial government was responsible for municipal poor-relief, it was the custom to levy as large an amount as possible on the citizens of Halifax and make up the deficit from the provincial treasury. The first mention of an actual poor-tax is found in a census "which appears to have been taken about 1755 or 1756", and which lists 256 heads of families paying such a rate. In 1759, £100 was assessed and £100 voted for the relief of those persons who "by the Providence of God", were unable to support themselves and their families. This money was swallowed up very quickly, for not many months later the overseers of the poor were complaining that "there is no provision made for relieving the poor, other than being sent to the Workhouse, or by Voluntary Subscriptions, which being unequal is attended with very great Inconveniences, and is disagreeable to the publick; who say that every one ought to pay their equal proportion toward relieving the said poor." Again the government came to the rescue with a vote of £850 which it was necessary to borrow, and in 1763 another £100 was collected from the inhabitants.

In addition to direct assessments, small sums were obtained from fines, tavern licenses, subscriptions, and theatrical entertainments. In 1773 a comedy entitled "The Suspicious Husband" was presented "by the Gentlemen of the Army and Navy . . . for the Benefit of the Poor, at which was a considerable Collection which is to be distributed to the indigent Families, and other old and poor people by the Minister and Church-wardens of this place." Again in 1774 "Acadius or Love in a Calm" was acted twice, once for the benefit of "poor housekeepers" and once for "the late suffers by Fire", and in 1779 a lecture was given for the "relief of the widow and family of unfortunate Henry Baldwin." Probably the gentlemen of the army and navy were simply enjoying themselves and borrowing the sanction of charity to lend respectability to an otherwise questionable pastime, for "play-acting" was definitely taboo among the more puritanical element. Whatever the object of persons who presented plays and lectures, the proceeds must have been insignificant in comparison with the large sums required, and the bulk of the funds for poor-relief was still raised by assessment and by government loans.

Varied Assessments for Public Relief

The methods of assessment, collection, and distribution seem to have varied from time to time. For example, in 1759 the church-

wardens of St. Paul's had charge of the assessment, and Belcher, in criticizing the Act of 1763, remarked that it had delegated to the freeholders of the townships powers "rightfully and solely belonging to Parish Churches and their vestries". At another time the assessment was in the hands of the Justices of the Quarter Sessions of the Peace, while the overseers of the poor usually looked after the collection and distribution of the money.

In 1763, however, a radical change was made, for an Act, "to enable the Inhabitants of the several Townships within this Province, to maintain their Poor" lifted the responsibility from the shoulders of the Provincial Government and transferred it to the townships. Henceforth the poor-rates, based on real and personal estates, were to be levied and collected by officers appointed at township meetings. At first it was required that the township must have 50 or more resident freeholders in order to claim this privilege, but by 1767 this restriction had caused so many difficulties in communities having less than 50 freeholders that it was extended to them as well. The out-settlements were left to care for their own poor as best they could, and there are many records of township meetings for that purpose. In general the local officials seem to have been honest and conscientious, although there is a record from Kings County of several persons being brought to justice as "Usurers and oppressors of the Poor."

Theoretically, Halifax was now expected to look after her own poor like any other township, but in practice this was too much to expect. Not only did the metropolis harbour a disproportionate number of her own paupers, but in 1767 so many had come thither from the country districts that £300 was necessary for their support during the winter.

In 1770 an effort was made to stop this migration by an Act "for the settlement of the Poor in the several Townships within this Province", which set forth that no township was obliged to support a pauper unless he was a native of that town, or had served an apprenticeship there, or had lived there as a hired servant the full year before applying for relief, or had paid the poor-rate for a year at once. Moreover any pauper having relatives was ineligible for public bounty, and if the said relatives neglected their duty towards him, they were fined 5s per week. In 1774 this law was further strengthened by an Act "for punishing Rogues, Vagabonds, and other Idle Disorderly Persons", which promised a month's hard labour to any person who returned to a township after being legally removed, or who deserted his family or lived idly by begging.

These regulations must have greatly reduced the inordinate demands on the Halifax tax-payers, yet the assistance of government

was still needed. Governor Legge reported in 1774 that the inhabitants of the capital were receiving provincial aid to the amount of £250 annually, a circumstance which may possibly be explained by the large numbers of transient poor—i.e., persons who were not natives of Halifax and who had no legal status elsewhere in the province. After 1782 these persons were provided for by a duty of 2½% on the value of every cargo coming into the harbour which was not consigned to an inhabitant of the province, and between July 1, 1782 and June 30, 1783, £142. 6s. 9d. was collected. Yet the Act was not continued after the year was up, and before it was passed and after it expired the citizens of Halifax may well have objected to the use of their money to support such vagrants. Whatever the reason, many of them were unwilling as well as unable to provide the amount required of them, for in 1771 they refused to pay £70 due on their last assessment, and in 1776 they neglected to meet at the times directed by law. The collectors, however, cannot be accused of slackness, since they called at every home after issuing a warning that "The Public may be assured that they will conscientiously do their Duty, nor shall Fear, Favour or Affection influence them to neglect it."

Outdoor Relief and Public Institutions

While most of those persons on relief were cared for in their own homes, the city boasted a time-honoured institution for the reception of homeless and unruly paupers. As early as 1752 it was suggested that a "Bridewell or workhouse" be established where able-bodied dependents could be made to work for their keep instead of being a burden on the community. After a series of delays the building seems to have been finally erected in 1759 with £500 from the duty money, and in that year an Act was passed for regulating it. The inmates were to be "all disorderly and idle persons, and such who shall be found begging, or practising any unlawful games, or pretending to fortune-telling, common drunkards, persons of lewd behaviour, vagabonds, run-aways, stubborn servants and children, and persons who notoriously mispend their time to the neglect and prejudice of their own or their family's support".

Such persons were to be set to work at useful tasks, and punished for idleness or disobedience by being whipped, fettered and shackled, or deprived of their food until they were reduced to better behaviour. It was hoped that the institution would be self-supporting, and that there would be a sufficient surplus from the workers' earnings to provide for those idiots, lunatics and invalids who were cared for by a special keeper. Apparently this scheme was unsuccessful, for in 1763 an additional Act required that three rooms in the workhouse should be set aside for a poor-house, to be supervised by the overseers of the

poor and supported by the Halifax poor taxes. Indeed, the dream of a self-supporting workhouse was rapidly fading, and in 1764 it was taking £500 annually from the duty money besides £100 assessed on the inhabitants. Such an expense was too much for the impoverished treasury, and in 1765 the keeper was informed that the workhouse must be closed. It seems probable that this order was carried out, for there is no mention of the workhouse in an estimate of the annual expenses of the provincial government, dated June 16, 1766. However, it was re-opened later, for in 1797 the authorities were advertising for a keeper for the House of Correction.

Moreover, the poorhouse was not closed. In 1777 it housed an average of 17 inmates, and in 1779 the abstract of votes passed by the General Assembly included a sum for maintaining several "Poor, Sick, Lame, Blind and Lunatic persons" at the poorhouse.

The First Orphanage

Another public institution of even earlier foundation was the Orphanage, which was opened on July 8, 1752. There was great need of such an establishment especially after the arrival of the German and French Protestants, many of whom died on the voyage because of the crowded and unsanitary conditions. One ship reached Halifax with eight newly-made orphans on board, and within twelve days their number was increased to fourteen. Moreover, the orphan-house sheltered poor children whether orphans or not. Belcher says that between 1752 and 1761 the majority of those cared for *were* orphans, but his figures belie his words, for 161 of the 275 children admitted were *not* orphans. These were children left destitute through the death of one parent and the illness of another, or more often the desertion of both, "of which more instances have happened here than in common, from the great Concourse of dissolute abandoned Women, followers of the Camp, Army, and Navy". Laws "to provide for the support of Bastard Children, and the punishment of the Mother and reputed Father" were, of course, powerless to stop the evil, and the government found itself responsible for the support of these unwanted waifs.

Before the establishment of the Orphan House the children were cared for in private homes at the public expense, the foster parents (as we should call them to-day) being allowed 3s. or 4s. a week exclusive of clothing and provisions. This arrangement proved most unsatisfactory, as the children were often neglected and "generally trained up in almost every Vice, without the common Principles or seeds of Industry". The guardians of the Orphan House went to the other extreme in their effort to "avoid Idleness and irreligion". Every minute must be accounted for. A schoolmaster of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel was employed to teach them to read.

"instructing them in their duty to God and their Neighbour from Nine to Twelve O'clock in the Morning—and from 2 to five in the Afternoon". During the rest of the day the girls were employed in housework, carding wool, spinning, and knitting stockings, while "such boys as were capable of doing anything have been preserved from Habits of Idleness (in the Intervals of School Hours) in attempting to pick Oakum during Winter, and in Summer in Weeding, gathering Stones and other little Offices in the Hospital and Orphan House Gardens".

"On Sundays they regularly attend Divine Service and go in Procession to and from Church preceded by the School-master at the head of the Boys and followed by the Matron and Assistants; the whole making a Decent and Orderly appearance."

It is not hard to visualize this pathetic procession with its "Decent and Orderly appearance". Of the 275 children who lived in the Orphan House at one time or another between 1752 and 1760, 173 were sickly, crippled, deaf, dumb, blind, or feeble-minded. Their diet consisted of beef, pork, bread, molasses, and spruce beer—the latter being substituted for rum because it was "so conducive to health"! Later there were some additions to this fare, for when Governor Legge carried out his investigation in 1774, he found that the menu was as follows: Breakfast, broth, hasty pudding or milk; dinner, fish three or four times a week, meat two or three times, bread and cheese once; supper, bread and beer.

Judging by the wholesale purchase of checked linen and "ozna-briggs", the decent and orderly appearance of these foundlings must have been further enhanced by a strict uniformity of dress—unless, of course, there was some scope for individual taste in such articles as the "2 Dozen ratt naved Hatts" received from His Majesty's stores. Naturally, no very elaborate or individual costumes could be contrived on an annual clothing allowance of £1 per child. Nevertheless it is unfair to criticize the directors too severely, since they were hampered on every side by financial restrictions. The Orphan House was supported by the annual grant from Parliament and was therefore a matter of concern to the parsimonious Lords of Trade. In 1752 they wrote, "it is our earnest Desire that you will discontinue these Establishments (the Orphan House and the Hospital) as soon as the Circumstances of the province will admit of it, in the meantime make all possible savings upon them".

Hopson pointed out that the institution was absolutely necessary, but demands for economy continued. The sum of 3d. per child per day was considered "a very unreasonable demand", and their Lordships suggested a reduction in the matron's salary and urged that children

who were not genuine orphans should be discharged. "Their labour too is applied not as in England to the use of the Charity, but to the Benefit of the Husband of that Person who receives the salary we complain of". In reply, Belcher stated that the profits of their labour "were placed in account to the Public", but it seems highly improbable that there *were* any profits. Dr. Breynton, rector of St. Paul's Church and inspector of the Orphan House, wrote to the Governor in 1764:

"In regard to the Labour of the Orphans, no Profit can arise from thence. Were they to continue in the Orphan House as they do in the Charity Schools in England to the age of 12 or 14 years, and where Manufactures are carried on to advantage some Emolument might be expected, but as Hands are so much wanted here for Agriculture, Fishing and Servants, the Children (if not disqualified by Diseases) are commonly bound out at Seven or Eight years old; an Age incapable of attempting to Spin or Work either Wool, Flax, or Hemp without greater waste than the Profit of their labour will amount to."

"By this Apprenticing the Orphans so young there necessarily follows a quick Succession in the Orphan House of Helpless Children and often, Infants which require Wett Nurses at 10 Shillings per week besides other Expences."

While Belcher said the children were eight to twelve years of age, the detailed records show that there were some as young as two and as old as twenty-two. In 1774, for instance, this whole age-range was represented as follows:

2- 4 yrs.....	2
4- 7 "	8
7-10 "	8
10-15 "	6
Above 22 yrs.....	1

There is little mention of the Orphan House between 1764 and 1774, but in the latter year Governor Legge's passion for reform led him to investigate this charity. Three men were appointed to inspect the institution and make a report, but the committee was not unanimous in its decisions, so that two reports were presented instead of one. Mr. Burrow, the committee-man of independent mind, reported that the building was decayed and falling into ruins, with broken windows and many rooms unplastered and open. The children suffered from cold and exposure, in spite of the fact that the "School room has a Stove in it, where one fire is kept". Of the 25 children in the institution, 11 were "puny, sickly, and in a bad state of health", 1 was an idiot, one a cripple, and one almost blind. Legge immediately set out with his usual energy to improve the situation, and within six months he

was able to report that "The Orphan House is refitted and rendered comfortable for the children, who are now protected from the inclemency of the weather". This new lease of life lasted some ten years, but in 1785 the building, being no longer in use, was ordered to be leased, and in 1792 it was being used as a stable.

ED. NOTE—Part II of this paper, dealing more particularly with early Public Health Measures in the Province of Nova Scotia in those pioneering days, will be published in the next issue of this Bulletin.

New General Secretary, National Y.W.C.A.

MISS LOUISE C. GATES, B.A., who succeeds the late Miss Hedwig D. Hobrecker as General Secretary of the National Council, Young Women's Christian Association of Canada, is a graduate of MacMurray College, Jacksonville, Ill. She has done post-graduate study at the University of Chicago, Columbia University, and at the American National Y.W.C.A. Training School in New York.

Miss Gates was for eleven years the General Secretary of the Y.W.C.A. in Toledo, Ohio, in which community she had the reputation of being the "best woman executive." Following this period of service she spent a year in extensive travelling.

In 1935, under the National Board, Y.W.C.A. of the United States, she was for six months Advisory Secretary to the Association in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Miss Gates was an American delegate to the World's Council meeting at Geneva in 1934, which Miss Hobrecker also attended, and was present at a similar gathering held at Elgin House, Muskoka, in September 1938.

For the last three years she has been General Secretary of the Y.W.C.A. in Montreal where she has done outstanding work. Miss Gates is charming, has great intellectual ability and is keenly interested in international affairs. She will take up her new duties in September.

W.H.



MATERNAL and CHILD HYGIENE

Diarrhoea as a Factor in Infant Mortality

(The second of a series of notes on important factors in infant mortality)

“DIARRHOEA AND ENTERITIS” is still the second great cause of infant deaths and in 1937 took the lives of 1,301 infants under one year (17.16 percent of the total number of infant deaths) and 235 infants under one month of age in Canada, the majority of these deaths occurring in the months of August and September.

With the advances in medical knowledge in the field of infant feeding and in the ways of preventing infections, “diarrhoea and enteritis” has become largely controllable. This heavy loss of infant lives could be very markedly reduced, therefore, if the children were put under the care of a competent medical man immediately that any sign of diarrhoea makes its appearance.

There are two main classes of diarrhoea which need to be considered in a discussion of what lay people can do to combat this grim reaper. The first of these may be called dietary and results usually from too high a proportion of sugars and heat producing substances in the infant's food. It is easy to see, therefore, why a baby may progress favourably on his feeding formula up until the weather turns hot during the summer months. Extra heat producing foods are really not needed at that time, so the body tries to rid itself of them by producing a larger number of bowel movements. The obvious first-aid measure to pursue until the doctor's advice can be secured is to stop the administration of all food and to give the infant as much cool, boiled water as he is able to take.

The second big class may be called the infectious diarrhoeas. These again may be subdivided into two groups, those where the intestinal tract is infected and those where it is secondarily affected by an infection elsewhere in the body and notably in the ears or the nose. Diarrhoea of the latter type can usually be controlled by having the doctor treat the local infections.

Very young infants are particularly susceptible to these infectious diarrhoeas and the margin between safety and danger to their lives is a very small one. Because of the many loose movements, these babies lose a great deal of body fluid which is essential to life, and hence the poisons produced by the infecting organism become more concentrated and more dangerous to the life of the infant.

It therefore becomes exceedingly important that young infants be protected against any infection which might lead to such a serious complaint. When a child is born there are no germs living in its intestinal canal, but as it grows older it gradually accumulates a variety of germs with which it can live quite comfortably. But should a large number of these be received rather suddenly by the infant, either by mouth or other body opening, the result will more than likely be a sick baby.

There are certain simple procedures by which this mass attack of germs may be prevented. In the first place, no one who has any infection like a cold or intestinal complaint such as diarrhoea should go near an infant unless it is absolutely necessary. Should it be necessary, however, a protective mask should be worn over the nose and mouth and the hands thoroughly scrubbed in antiseptic solution before the baby or anything belonging to him is touched.

Secondly, all babies put their hands in their mouths. Hands, clothes and bed clothes should therefore be kept scrupulously clean so that the babies will not eat any more germs than necessary. Flies are the most efficient carriers of infectious material so infants should be protected from this danger by screening in the warm weather.

Infections can also be picked up from uncleanly feeding equipment such as bottle nipples, unwashed breast nipples or even infected milk and water. Again, flies can be supremely dangerous to infants if permitted to light upon utensils or any surface which will come in contact with the baby's hands or mouth.

These precautions may appear bothersome at first, but the habit of carrying them out can easily be learned. Our readers may also feel that this discussion on the control of "diarrhoea and enteritis" is an "old story" to them. But one aspect of this problem will bear repetition. The difference in the symptoms of dietary and infectious

diarrhoea is often negligible so that the correct diagnosis can be made only by a trained medical man. Since the correct treatment of these infants will depend a good deal on the correct diagnosis, it is of considerable importance that a medical opinion be secured at the earliest possible moment following the appearance of diarrhoea in infants during the summer months. Furthermore, if infectious diarrhoea is not recognized as such, one baby suffering from this complaint, even if he can overcome it satisfactorily, may spread infection to other neighbouring babies in epidemic proportions.

If all those who are associated with mothers and infants would explain to the former the urgency of consulting their physician at the first sign of abnormality, they would earn their reward by helping the medical and nursing professions to reduce the very heavy toll of infant lives from "summer diarrhoea."

J.K.L.

Notes from the Canadian Medical Association Convention

Puerperal Septicaemia

One mother in every fifty in Canada at some time during the post-natal period suffers from some degree of infection as shown by a rise in temperature above the normal, according to the statement made by Dr. E. Couture, Director, Division of Child and Maternal Hygiene, Department of Pensions and National Health, Ottawa, at a round table discussion of this subject at the Canadian Medical Association Convention in Montreal during the week of June the 19th.

Dr. Couture went on to discuss the measures which have been adopted by other countries and the relation of these to the rate of maternal mortality. For instance, in England and Wales, "puerperal pyrexia" is a condition which must be reported, on a special printed form within twenty-four hours, to the public health authorities. Furthermore, the forms list for the benefit of the individual doctors the facilities that are available, free if necessary, for the control of this condition. The services of a consultant and of a laboratory can be secured at short notice; the patient may be hospitalized or provided with specific drugs for treatment in the home.

In New Zealand a record covering the prenatal, intra partum and postnatal periods is kept in every maternity case attended by a doctor or midwife. Over a period of years the analysis of these records has

shown that the reduction in number of maternal deaths due to sepsis has been in proportion to the increasing number of available hospital facilities.

Dr. H. C. Burgess of Montreal and Dr. W. A. Scott of Toronto, in discussing the relationship between operative deliveries and the incidence of sepsis, drove a nail in the coffin of the old idea that operative deliveries per se were to be blamed. They and Dr. L. T. Armstrong of Toronto felt that success in conducting any delivery depended on the clinical judgment of the attendant, and that the latter might be just as much, if not more, at fault for failing to choose the correct operative procedure at the right moment than if he waited for nature to take its course.

In further discussion, a plea was made for more adequate educational opportunities for medical students to learn the management of deliveries in the home where, in many cases, equipment may be very limited in quantity and questionable in quality.

Prenatal Clinics

Well organized prenatal clinics are an educational force leading to improvement in general health throughout any community where such are located, according to Dr. John D. McQueen of Winnipeg. Because of the regular and early supervision which can be provided for mothers in this way, the four main causes of maternal deaths could be brought under control in Canada. Dr. McQueen stressed the argument that careless or inadequate prenatal care, which may result from the lack of demand for adequate supervision by the mothers themselves, from a lack of time or an inadequate remuneration to doctors, can be infinitely more dangerous to maternal health and life than no care at all, for it engenders a false sense of security in both patient and doctor that all is well. He suggested further that the women of any community would benefit greatly should they be provided with an instructional course in how to keep healthy during and after pregnancy.

This scheme would be well worth a trial, even in smaller communities, as a protective health measure of some potentiality. J.K.L.

New Book on Child Study

Children from Seed to Saplings, by Martha May Reynolds, formerly Professor of Child Study, Vassar College. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York and London. Price \$2.50

AT LAST we have an outline for the study of development in children's behaviour which starts before birth and continues through to the

seventeenth year. It is written in simple language, avoiding wherever possible the use of psychological terms that have formerly led to a state of bewilderment in the minds of many students.

The chapters listed in the contents will illustrate how each age group has been discussed in the light of all the ages in the group, and not according to the usual method of writing about, for instance, the two to four-year-olds. These are as follows: From Seed to Saplings—The Preview; Before Birth; The Seed and Its First Nine Months; Babyhood; The First and Second Years; The Preschool Age: Two-, Three-, and Four-year-olds; Early Childhood: Eight-year-olds; The Unknown Age: Nine-, Ten-, and Eleven-year-olds; Early Adolescence: Twelve-, Thirteen-, and Fourteen-year-olds; Almost Grown Up: Fifteen-, Sixteen-, and Seventeen-year-olds, and From Seed to Saplings: The Review.

Rather than appending them to the end of each chapter, Martha Reynolds has included in the text the suggestions for observation projects on the part of her students. This arrangement is found to be much more stimulating of individual observation, for the context makes such projects appear so very interesting.

In one way or another the author continuously reminds her readers that the child's personality is an integrated whole and not just a collection of his physical health and development, his intellectual abilities, his psychological response to his environment and so on. Furthermore, she points out that the human organism grows through the interaction on internal (so called hereditary) and external (environmental) forces through its various stages of development with orderliness and continuity, each age merging gradually into the next, but each person being unique in this development.

The importance of perfect health in the accomplishment of the child's physical, intellectual and emotional adjustments to the wider and more complicated life of school is brought out in the chapter on the five-, six-, and seven-year-old group. In this connection, continuation of as many as possible of the routine health habits such as sleep and rest, eating, playing and elimination is stressed.

The chapters on early adolescence (twelve-, thirteen-, and fourteen-year-olds) and the almost grown up stage (fifteen-, sixteen-, and seventeen-year-olds) treat the behaviour problems of children according to their stage of adolescent development rather than the more usual method of chronological age groups. The changes in body appearance, in intellectual and emotional outlook, and the social behaviour of these developing adolescents are presented in clear and simple language so that adults responsible for youngsters of this age may understand how they can most effectively guide them to a stable and adequate standard of adult behaviour.

References for further reading are appended to each chapter. These are divided into two lists, the first of which contains references which are more or less essential and the second those which will round out the knowledge of the student who has already had access to the first group. Appendix I is a summary of these lists which states the price for which the books may be purchased.

A few suggestions on the technique of child study are set down by the author in Appendix II. A student should become child conscious, study one child intensively by observing his behaviour in many different circumstances, keep records of all these observations and so forth. A special Appendix III is devoted to the method of observing babies during home visits or classroom demonstrations. Interviews with other adults who know the child under observation are reviewed in Appendix IV. And the last, Appendix V, gives a suggested outline for planning a child study course.

Although "Children from Seed to Saplings" is not presented as a text book or psychological reference book, it is the first complete and simple guide book to the study of children from gestation to adolescence which we have seen. To read this book and to make the observations suggested therein would enable adults who are interested in or who have dealings with children of any age to understand more easily the manifold differences between children and themselves. J.K.L.

The Next Task in Public Health

"OUR NEXT task is to increase physical fitness through positive measures of hygiene", Dr. Thomas Parran, Surgeon General, United States Public Health Service, declared in an address to the National Conference of Social Work in Buffalo on June 20th, in which he presented a review of past and present health needs of the United States with especial reference to the recent development of the National Health Program. Commenting on paramount needs of the present day, he said, "improved national nutrition may be of more lasting importance than a wider distribution of medical care. Improved housing, opportunity for healthful recreation, physical and health education, all have an essential place if we are to give the people the opportunity for health". In conclusion Dr. Parran stated that "It should be possible by applying present knowledge to bring this (American) nation to a level of healthfulness far beyond anything we have ever known".



FAMILY WELFARE and RELATED PROBLEMS

Two New Pamphlets for Family Workers

"Development of Staff Through Supervision"

This publication includes six papers by outstanding American social workers dealing with various aspects of the problems involved in supervision. These are followed with a review by Miss Grace Marcus of Miss Virginia Robinson's new book, "Supervision in Social Case Work." The whole offers excellent material in a wide discussion of the subject.

What personnel, training and equipment are necessary for supervision; how does the training continue best in the first year out of school; what are the specific problems of a public service supervisor; and to what extent can tried private agency techniques for supervision be transferred into practice in a public department? These are questions having examination in this publication.

The nature of the material and the thorough manner in which it is examined does not allow of extensive report in a review. Careful study of the review assures an answer to some, and assistance in thinking through many of the perplexing problems of the supervisor.

Miss Lucia B. Clow, Miss Margaret Kauffman, Miss Leah Feder, Miss Helen Perlman, Miss Bertha Reynolds, and Miss Amelia Igel are those contributing to the collection of papers giving the supervision. Miss Grace Marcus in her review of Miss Robinson's book touches again on much of the material dealt with under more specific and separate headings by the earlier writers. This publication should prove valuable as study material for supervisors in family agencies, whether the smaller or the larger ones. The publication is of thirty-two pages, and on sale at the Family Welfare Association of America, 122 East 22nd Street, New York, price thirty-five cents.

"Cooperative Case Work"

The second Family Welfare Association publication coming to us at this time is one entitled "Co-operative Case Work." This is a study of various co-operative relationships between agencies giving case work service.

Miss Margaret Rich in her contribution to the series of articles which she entitles "Co-operative Service between Public and Private Agencies" says—"The term 'co-operative cases' has become prominent in our social work vocabulary with the increasing assumption by governmental agencies of responsibility for relief to families and individuals. The actual practice is, however, as old as social work itself and has always carried the implication of co-operative activity of two or more social agencies in behalf of one client with the integration of services toward a mutually accepted objective."

The sixteen different contributions to this symposium deal with co-operative relationships between public and private agencies, between agencies in the family field, with school, church, probation services, public health and hospital agencies, with camps, and with domestic relations courts. A final, interesting article deals with "An Experiment in Case Work—Group Work Correlation", analysing the report of a study by a committee of the New York Welfare Council.

The publication will have distinct value to almost any agency in the family field since none work where policies of relationship are not in constant state of growth. It is evident from these studies that examination of relationship policies between agencies can reveal much toward the elimination of wasteful practice and faulty treatment of those who come to the agency for advice and help. The publication is of sixty-four pages, available from the Family Welfare Association of America, 122 East 22nd Street, New York, price sixty cents. B.T.

Appointed to London Family Service Bureau

MISS FLORENCE CHRISTIE has been appointed Executive Secretary of the London Family Service Bureau, succeeding Miss Maryn Emerson who was forced to retire because of ill health. After little more than a year under Miss Emerson's guidance, the Bureau had attained very real development and prestige in the community.

Miss Christie is a native of Saint John, New Brunswick, where members of her family have given leadership in the community's efforts in the social work field. She is a graduate of the University of New Brunswick and of the Social Science Department of the University of Toronto. After some settlement house and Big Sister experience, Miss Christie began her family work with the Neighborhood Workers Association of Toronto where she remained for seven years, latterly in the responsible post of District Secretary. Miss Christie took over her new duties on June 16th. B.T.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION



Neighborhood Organization in Community Planning

THE "NEIGHBORHOOD APPROACH" and the construction of neighborhood units in the community planning machinery of Councils of Social Agencies has been the subject of much discussion and considerable experimenting by "welfare planners" in the past several years. Some appraisal of these experiments has now become possible and this subject was one of the highlights of round table meetings of the Community Chest and Council conference at Niagara Falls, N.Y., in June. *The Welfare Summary* is indebted to Mr. Louis Serene, Executive Secretary of the Council of Social Agencies in Winnipeg for the following notes on expression of opinion in this discussion:

The discussion was introduced by two excellent papers. W. T. McCullough of Cleveland presented the aspect of "citizen participation", describing experience in Cleveland, Syracuse and Hartford, while Leroy A. Ramsdell of Hartford presented the aspect of "coordination of agency services on a neighborhood basis". Miss Helen Walmsley lead the discussion of the two papers. One might draw the following conclusions from the papers given and the lively discussion following:

1. Neighborhood organization has passed the fad stage and settled down to a rather slow but sound development. Experimentation is still a part of the development in this field.

2. Neighborhoods must be carefully selected and agency services must have reached a certain stage of development before neighborhood organizations should be tried. The basic principles underlying neighborhood organization of social services are still sound even though there have been some failures. One outstanding advantage of neighborhood organization of social services is the coordination of agency services on a case basis. This involves a plan for central diagnosis and central referral. Agency workers have learned to co-operate to an extent which has not been possible through a city wide approach.

3. Agencies contemplating neighborhood organizations would do well to review the experience and information available to date before taking a step in this field.

4. We can look to the several cities which have pioneered in this development for further refinements in techniques in this field in the course of the next few years.

5. The distinction between organizing social services by neighborhoods and organizing lay and professional study and discussion groups by neighborhoods, should be kept in mind. The meeting was not unanimous in its opinion of the value of neighborhood lay and professional discussion and planning groups.

* * *

Neighborhood organization was also the subject of one meeting of the community organization section of the National Conference of Social Work in Buffalo, with a paper by Leroy Ramsdell of Hartford and discussion led by Walter Pettit of the New York School of Social Work and Courtenay Dinwiddie, Secretary of the National Child Labour Committee. *The Welfare Summary* has been provided with the following notes on this subject by Miss Joy A. Maines, Executive Secretary of the Council of Social Agencies in Ottawa:

Too many of our communities have been "jerry-built" so far as their social welfare programmes are concerned and we need "landscape architects", Mr. Ramsdell declared. But co-ordinated activities can only grow through confidence, respect and understanding of them. Time and competent personnel are indispensable in achieving this goal, and both professional service and volunteer leadership are needed.

Social work problems are neighborhood problems and neighborhood groups must be dedicated to the self-improvement and the self-development of the neighborhood in planning a neighborhood programme. Four considerations should be uppermost:

1. Each enterprise must be concerned with a problem of the neighborhood.
2. The programme should be developed by methods which utilize the natural tendencies in the situation.
3. Professional service is essential.
4. There should be a physical focus—a neighborhood centre—which will serve as a convenient meeting place.

Neighborhood Councils are an experiment in decentralization—most cities have districts which seem to have definite frontiers from other districts. Social workers in the neighborhood need to know and understand the cultural background of the district, how it has changed

over a period of years, the religious and national groups therein, even political groups, what forces are moulding character, what are the general interests of people living in the area. They must pay attention to gossip, must realize the importance of small incidents.

As a keynote of the neighborhood programme there must be a continuous process of survey—the most obvious facts are sometimes the least enlightening. One must discover problems and then relate services to meet those problems. Workers must develop an awareness of the neighborhood area, must have resourcefulness and informality, appreciate the value of all contacts, the need to be re-educated to the neighborhood approach, not so much in technique as in attitude, and develop an awareness of the incipient client in every neighbor. This approach will humanize social work and make social work available to average citizens.

Workers in the neighborhood must have freedom to consult with others in the area and to experiment. The distinctive function of the neighborhood council is actual co-ordination of services—the general educational work in the community can be carried by separate agencies.

The concept of "co-ordination" has changed. It used to be that of preventing duplication of agency programmes but now it has realized that whole areas of service need to be co-ordinated on a more significant level and neighborhood councils facilitate a partnership to this end between experts who serve, and citizens who are, the community.

Some objectives of neighborhood councils might be stated as follows:

1. To minimize the reasons for existence of human distress—as collective enterprises to minimize the number suffering from social ills.
2. To arouse public appreciation of social work.
3. To make possible a more reasonable budgetting of time, effort and skills.
4. To strengthen preventive work—in a time of expanding needs and receding resources it is essential to emphasize the importance of preventive services.
5. To be a medium for joint action for preventive work.

Co-ordination of effort is essential to attain such objectives. In the past there has been co-ordination at the executive and policy making level. The need now is for co-ordination *at the level of performance* which may be achieved through closer working relationships of all workers in a given neighborhood—the case worker, group worker, nurse, teacher, doctor and citizen. In summary the essentials are—good

leadership, a physical centre for the council and co-ordination of services at the level of performance.

In discussion Mr. Pettitt emphasized the value of neighborhood groups interesting themselves in the policy and performance of public agencies as well as of private enterprise and pointed out that pressure group tactics are frequently more successful in the public field. He also discussed the relationship of the neighborhood councils to the central council, pointing out the necessity of preserving local autonomy while the neighborhood may still have to remain dependent on the central council for personnel. He stressed the importance of training for neighborhood work and the need for field work practice and added that settlements in their long history have proved that "residential forces are redemptive forces".

Mr. Dinwiddie described some related experience of farm groups working together to achieve better conditions for farmers combining the idea of common interest, study and a continuing programme of action.

Value of Social Service Exchange to Public Welfare Stressed at Recent Meeting

ELSIE BOWDEN

Secretary, Social Service Exchange, Montreal

THE SOCIAL Service Exchange section of the National Conference of Social Work held at Buffalo, devoted three afternoons to papers and discussion of problems pertaining to the Exchange, and in the mornings informal meetings and consultations were held. Mr. Glen E. Jackson's paper, "Significance of the Social Service Exchange in the Light of the New Conditions", emphasized the Exchange as an important instrument standing for orderly planning in the complexity and intensity of today's demands on public and private social work. Quoting in part from the paper, Mr. Jackson stated "the supreme functions of the Social Service Exchange are clearance, co-ordination, co-operative and creative planning.

"Launched originally as an instrument to keep kindly folks and social workers from leaving two baskets of groceries at the same door, it served well the days when the total families dependent upon and receiving service from the social agencies of a community might total one percent of the population. Today it is well over twenty percent.

"If I had to defend the whole vast business of social work and wanted to do it deftly and impressively, nothing would be better

suited to this purpose than to point with pride to the Social Service Exchange. There it stands as a quietly operating epitome of centralization of information, coordination of effort, and the effective prevention of waste.

"The use of the Exchange by public agencies should be required. The degree to which compulsion of private agencies in this matter is either feasible or desirable or necessary may be an open question. At least those subject to any form of substantial public supervision, including, of course, all those receiving and expending public funds in any guise, should accept the requirement of clearance as an essential control of public money, to say nothing of it as a case work instrument.

"With each passing year the problem of duplication of services in social work becomes more serious. Duplication of services on one case means that some other case is failing to receive service since there cannot be enough time, money and personnel for all. What is also to the point is that duplication of service may actually be a destructive experience to the client. The agency owes it to the future—both to the client's future and to future agencies—to record the fact of its activity on the case. Eliminating one or two expensive operations or examinations, or a few cases of intensive or prolonged treatment, or one case that becomes chronic, will pay for many hundred Social Service Exchange registrations."

Miss E. N. Matthews' paper dealt with a recent study of actual functioning of the New York City Exchange covering:—(1) "Policies and procedures followed by the agency in clearing with the Exchange and the names of new applicants, of persons previously known to the agencies who make reapplication and of active clients." (2) "Policies and procedures followed in obtaining and using information from other agencies reported by the Exchange as having previously known the client." (3) "Policies and procedures followed in answering inquiries from other agencies." (4) "Training of staff members in the use of the Exchange."

The study revealed that there was great dissimilarity in the policies and practices of different organizations using the Exchange. Some agencies, particularly those with a well trained staff, make use of all the facilities offered through clearing with the Exchange. Others regard the use of the Exchange as a matter of mechanical routine and these organizations made few contacts with the agencies which the Exchange reported. To quote from Miss Matthews' paper—"All too many agencies, while regarding the information received from the Exchange as "indispensable" to the proper functioning of their programmes, were inclined to view the use of the Exchange as a routine clerical matter. As with any case work tool, policies governing the

use of the Exchange need to be carefully worked out in relation to the programme of the individual agency utilizing its resources."

Under the leadership of Miss Woodberry a session was devoted to "Information Please" when questions of a technical nature were presented for discussion. The replies showed that while fundamentally all Exchanges are organized on the same basis their technique varies to suit the requirements of the community.

Mrs. Leute spoke on publicity and showed an interesting exhibit of posters, pamphlets and graphs, used by various Exchanges for publicity purposes during financial campaigns and for the benefit of agencies using the Exchange.

Kingston Forms Council of Social Agencies

THE WELFARE agencies of Kingston, Ontario, have formed a Council of Social Agencies under the Presidency of Dr. R. C. Wallace, Principal of Queen's University, and will bring the organization into action this autumn. This Bulletin is indebted to Mr. E. I. Smit, Superintendent of the Kingston Children's Aid Society, for the following notes about the organization:

In the late autumn of 1938 a group of interested individuals were called together by Mrs. A. L. Clark, largely at the prompting of the Local Council of Women. Mrs. Clark had long been connected with various social services in Kingston and in company with a number of other people, including members of the Local Council of Women, felt a need or a lack in the available services. The meeting so convened revealed that there was a serious need for co-ordination of the existing services; that there did not exist a means of co-ordination; there were gaps between the available services and the community needs; and that no machinery existed to "spot" these gaps efficiently and plan their closing. Immediately the need of a Council was realized and plans were laid accordingly. A smaller group met regularly throughout the winter and carefully considered ways and means while working to interest the various agencies and individual persons in the proposed Council.

In the Spring of 1939 a round dozen agencies sent delegates to a meeting and the Council was born. This meeting passed a resolution embodying basic principles and objectives and provided for the election of certain officers. Dr. Wallace, principal of Queen's University became the first President and Mrs. Batstone, a graduate of the University of Toronto and of the Department of Social Science of that University, became the first honorary Secretary. The primary task of the officers so elected will be that of drawing up the constitution and preparing for the commencement of operations next autumn.



DELINQUENCY and RELATED SERVICES

What Several Hundred Delinquents Think of the Police

HARRY K. ATKINSON

Superintendent, Manitoba Home for Boys

A QUESTIONNAIRE was given to all boys in a number of reform schools across Canada. No pressure was brought to bear upon the boys for answers; no names were signed. The boys were asked to answer the questions honestly and frankly. They were given paper and pencil and the questions were read and explained to them or put on the blackboard in their school-rooms. Each boy answered for himself and the answers tabulated below give us a clear picture of what boys, who have broken the law, think of the treatment they have received at the hands of the police.

The following is the questionnaire:—What contact have you had with the Police? When? How many times? City Police, or Mounted Police? Did they treat you roughly? Did they treat you fairly? Did they warn you? Did they threaten you? Did they lie to you? Do you like them? Do you think they did their duty? Do you think they are your friends? Did you have a fair trial? Do you think the police talked too much to the judge about you? How could you improve them? Do you think they were trying to get you sent here? For your own good? or, To show off? State what more the police should do?"

The questions called for a distinction to be made between City and Mounted Police. Some boys did not always specify which police. Some had contact with both. The totals given are only from the specific statements made by the boys as to which police treated them. Some boys had been treated differently on different occasions, and it is only fair to record both reactions.

Contact with the police included arrests on the street, in the home, in school, in stores, playgrounds and in stolen cars, and ranged

from one to thirty-three times. Some had been locked up in cells over night, and some had been given "a few hits and sent home". The majority of boys had their first contact with the police in connection with some misdemeanour such as fighting, truancy, throwing stones, petty theft, loitering, trespassing, etc. Some few had been taken to the police by their parents. Some had met the police in first-aid classes; others had no contact with them. Some had been picked up by the police at the age of six years, but twelve and thirteen years was the age when most boys got into trouble.

Contact had been made from 1930 to 1938. There was a sharp division of the type of reaction of the boys to the treatment they had received from the City or the Mounted Police. This reaction is very marked by an antagonism or unwholesome attitude towards City police treatment by boys coming from Winnipeg and Regina.

How They Feel about Treatment by Police

To the question "Did they treat you roughly", 85 boys answered "yes" and 306 answered "no". Remarks of those who had been treated roughly were as follows:—

"He slapped me to make me tell the truth, and kicked me and sent me home."

"I was treated rough inside the jail and the cruiser car."

"They threw me around."

"They hit me in the face with a glove."

To the question "Did the police treat you fairly?" only 62 boys out of a total of 363 stated that they had not been treated fairly. Whatever a boy's capacity to judge fair treatment is, it is evident from these replies that the treatment received was generally satisfactory in the mind of the boy.

To the question "Did they warn you?", 261 boys answered "Yes", 72 boys answered "No", and one boy stated that some of them warned him.

To the question "Did they threaten you?", 185 boys answered "No", and 140 answered "Yes". Some of their comments are:—

"They said they would put me in a padded cell."

"They said they would see me put away for two years."

"They said they would put me in the "Pen" or Stony Mountain."

"They threatened to strap me."

"By saying they would send me to the "Pen".

"They said they would send me to the black hole for a week with bread and water."

"They said if I didn't lie they wouldn't send me here."

"They said if I didn't squeal they would make it hard for me."

"They said they would put me in jail if I didn't tell them the names of the rest of the gang. I told them a lot of phoney names, and they believed me."

"Yes, in a very unpleasant way."

To the question "Did they lie to you?", 136 boys answered "Yes" and 156 boys answered "No". They commented as follows:—

"They told me that I would be whipped every day at the school."

"They said nothing would happen to me if I opened up, and they would let me go."

"They told me to tell everything I knew for they wanted to put a man away, and the most I would get would be a licking, if I got that. I got two years here."

These replies indicate that there are still some police officers who should not have contact with children. Using a period in a reform school as a threat to get a boy to tell the truth, lying about conditions there, using third degree methods, making breakable promises, etc. all tend to lower the tone of law enforcement and rob the Court of its majesty. It is an evidence of ignorance and stupidity which should not be tolerated in any efficient police force. Training in control and child psychology is needed here. When an officer finds it necessary to lie to get the truth from a boy he should resign from the force before his methods create unwholesome attitudes towards law and order.

Majority Like The "Cop"

To the question "Do you like them", 208 boys answered "Yes", 86 boys answered "No", and a few stated that they liked some of the police. A few of their comments are as follows:—

"I like the ones who play fair."

"They are alright when you are not in trouble."

"No, because they think they are better than others, and speak ill of you."

"No, because they always like to stick their noses into everything."

"I like the Mounties but not the City Police."

"Not exactly, I am not particularly fond of them."

Generally throughout the survey references to the Mounted Police indicated that they stood in better favor with a large majority of the boys.

To the question "Do you think they did their duty?", 288 boys answered "Yes" and only 14 boys answered "No". This is a remarkable evidence of a boy's sense of fairness, and should be recognized by those

dealing with children. Considering the fact that no names were asked for and no pressure was put on to secure the type of answers that we might desire, these boys show a fine conception of duty; even though they suffered from its being carried out only 14 boys complained.

To the question "Do you think they are your friends?", 255 boys answered "Yes", and 64 boys answered "No", and 6 were doubtful. They commented as follows:—

"Sometimes you think they are, others you don't."

"They say they are."

"They are my friends when I am not in trouble."

"Some of them, others I hate."

"I am not sure."

"Sometimes, if they don't know you."

"Yes, but they want to know about your past."

It is fine to know that such a large number of boys, though they are now in reform schools because of evidence submitted by the police about their conduct, still feel that the police are their friends. One superintendent records that the answers of his boys to this question would no doubt be favorable to the police because two police officers had conducted First Aid classes in his school during the winter, and a fine spirit of friendliness had been built up between boys and men. Any movement that will bring the boy and the policeman together should be encouraged. The police officer who occasionally looks in on the boys' club activities on his beat, who is friendly with the corner boys, and who is interested in community activities will command respect and a friendly co-operation which will help greatly to reduce lawlessness on the part of youth.

Antagonism and arrogance are often a challenge to the adventurous spirit of youth to commit crimes of defiance. When youth wages war against the police it becomes gangsterism. The critical attitude towards the police shown by some of the boys, particularly in two schools, indicates the need of some adjustment to be made by the police in the matter of their approach to the problem of juvenile delinquency. Probation officers and judges interviewed on this matter are quite frank in their criticism. One judge said, "The police always expect to be believed. They never make mistakes, and become angry at me for not doing with a boy what they want me to do." A probation officer writes, "Unfortunately I have found in the majority of cases that the tendency is for a child to look with suspicion and distrust upon the officer, and rarely is the boy encouraged to confide in the police or let himself be taken into their confidence. Bullying and reminding a boy of his past, and telling him that his word is not worth anything is not the best approach to encourage confidence."

"I am strongly of the opinion", writes one probation officer, "that a different attitude on the part of the police officer would not only lead to more co-operation from juvenile delinquents, but would dispense with the attitude of trying to put something over the police or the law. I am not advocating the pampering or babying of juveniles, but feel that the police officers must realize that the first impressions they make upon a child count for a great deal in winning his confidence, or seeking his co-operation in trying to adjust certain difficulties."

Another writes, deploring police methods when dealing with juvenile delinquents, and expresses the fear that their clumsy methods do a great deal of damage to the child's life.

Two Thirds Feel They Had a Fair Trial

To the question "Did you have a fair trial?", 207 boys answered "Yes", 87 boys answered "No". This question was put in to try and get from the boys their reaction to the court experience from a police standpoint. Some schools indicated a higher percentage of "No's".

School No. 1.	"Yes"—31	"No"—6
School No. 2.	"Yes"—34	"No"—7
School No. 3.	"Yes"—56	"No"—36
School No. 4.	"Yes"—24	"No"—16
School No. 5.	"Yes"—25	"No"—14
School No. 6.	"Yes"—41	"No"—8

The boys' comments on this question were:—

"The judge did not say any good words for me."

"They didn't listen to my side of the story; they just listened to the fellow on the side of the judge."

"They accused me of a lot of things I did not do, and would not give me a chance to say anything."

"The witnesses were not right."

"They didn't listen to me."

"I can prove that other people did what I did, and didn't get anything for it."

"Why did I get sentenced for charges I knew nothing about."

"I just got in the door and the judge said 'two years'."

"They had it all fixed." (City Police)

"I will not say 'yes' or 'no' because I don't know what happened in court."

"Not at all."

To the question "Did the police talk too much to the judge about you", 134 boys answered "Yes" and 169 boys answered "No". Their comments were:—

"Yes, far too much."

"There were no police at the trial, but the judge said things about me that were not true."

"The Crown Prosecutor and some other lawyer for another boy persuaded the judge to put all the blame on me."

"Yes, they always get something to say about us."

To the question "Do you think he was trying to get you sent here", 137 boys answered "Yes" and 162 answered "No", and 8 boys were doubtful. Coupled with this was the question "For your own good, or to show off". To this 227 boys answered that they thought they had been sent to the school for their own good, and 34 thought that the police were trying to show off. Some of their comments were:—

Several of them answered, "He didn't like me."

"He wanted me to be sent here without suspended sentence."

"He wanted the other boys to go free and me to take the rap."

"To put me out of the way."

"I deserved punishment."

"The Truant Officer would put charges against me that I didn't do. He tried to get me here because he just started to lay charges without being asked, so the magistrate ordered him to keep quiet."

"Just to make a boy unhappy."

"To keep me away from my friends."

"So I could not get work."

"Yes, and how."

"Yes, because I kicked up too much trouble for them."

"They said it was for my own good. They always do."

How the Boy Would "Improve" The Policeman

To the question "How could you improve them?" the following comments were received:—

"By just asking questions about the thing you were caught for."

"They are good enough for me."

"By helping them."

"By cutting out the rough stuff."

"By listening to what they say."

"By playing fair."

"I don't think you can improve them."

"By making them look after the kids of the city better."

"By staying out of trouble."

"By making your conduct better."

"By being loyal to them."

"By doing the right thing."
 "By co-operating with them."
 "Some are crooked."
 "By putting honest police in, not the kind who will turn their back for money."
 "By stopping them from attending the bootlegger while off duty."
 "By obeying the law." (10 boys).
 "By keeping out of mischief." (5 boys).
 "By being nice." (5 boys).
 "By being kind to them." (4 boys).
 "By staying away from trouble." (6 boys).
 "By not stealing." (8 boys).
 "Teach them to tell the truth."
 "By being true to them and ourselves."
 "Stop stealing and tell the truth."
 "Stop crooking." (2 boys).
 "By being a good boy."
 "They could be a little bit polite."
 "By doing what they tell you."
 "Make them stricter."
 "Don't let them use clubs."
 "They could be kinder." (6 boys).
 "Don't have any police."
 "By doing their work right."
 "By letting us go."
 "Go straight." (2 boys).
 "Let them stop the fighting at the school."
 "By giving the boys too many chances."
 "By taking the boys home at night."
 "By having them not take so much advantage of their position."
 "When a boy is found roaming the street late hours at night or running away from home, let the police take him to his home and find out what is the matter. Often the case is that the father is drunk and they are afraid to go home or for some other fault that is not their own, not like some police who take you to court and you have to go on trial and your father and mother go up and tell a whole lot of lies about you to the judge to try and put you away. I have known lots of boys who have run away from home because there was trouble. I am one myself. I am sure no boy would run away if he has a good home unless he is crazy."
 "Try to keep the boys under eighteen off the streets after ten o'clock."

"Put more English speaking men on the force in the English districts." (3 boys).
 "Teach them not to pull ears."
 "Teach them not to frame anybody."
 "By remembering to tell that we are boys, not criminals."
 "Get younger guys."
 "In some cases they let boys off too much."
 "They don't go after other people."
 "Find the people concerned with a job, if possible."
 "By me being a Mountie."
 "I wish they would look into a boy's story a little more."
 "Getting more intelligent men."
 "Teach them discipline."
 "I could not improve them."
 "They should not send kids to jail."
 "Get better natured men."
 "No police officer should get drunk."
 "Choose men who won't shoot to kill."
 "Choose men who won't torture a boy to get a story."
 "Choose men who will try to help a boy, not put him away."
 "They should be honest."
 "They should all wear uniforms."
 "They should not always watch you."
 "They should not visit homes when neighbours can see."
 "Wait until Communism comes."
 "More training and less shooting."
 "As acting towards the boys as they would to their own."
 "Be more polite to the boy's mother."
 "Don't act so official-like but be more practical in aiding juveniles."
 "They should not come to the house in uniform."
 "They should not threaten."
 "The police should not suspect a boy when a theft has been committed in his district, without cause."

What More Should The Police Do?

The question "What more should the police do" was not answered by a large number of boys in some of the schools. Many just said, "I don't know." Those who did answer this question gave interesting and pertinent comments. Some of them, only thinking of themselves, answered:—

"They were easier on me than they might have been."
 "They might have given me a suspended sentence, because I didn't have a third chance."

"They should have left me alone and I would have got along alright."

"They should give you three chances."

"They should give a boy at least one chance."

"The police didn't give me a fair trial. There was one officer who didn't like me so he said he would send me here for a while."
(City Police).

"They should give you more chances."

"Let me stay home."

"Get me out of here."

Some of the boys in their answers gave general suggestions as follows:—

"They should give boys and girls a fair chance."

"They should not do more than they are doing."

"They should be able to get a boy out when his time is up, that is if he has been good and his people are able to take care of him."

"They give more chances to the small boys who do not know better and should do their duty."

"Get plain-clothes men interested in juveniles."

"Walk beats instead of using prowler cars."

"They should be more popular."

"They should help the country more."

"The City Police can be improved a lot. They should be more like the Mounties."

"Treat us like boys and look after us."

"Try to give the boys a square deal."

"They should mind their own affairs."

"Employ more police to work."

"Do their duty and not favor some."

"They should see that every boy of school age should go to school or to work."

"They should have more entertainment for them in their spare time."

"They have witnesses, not ask a boy whether he is guilty or not or the case may be sub-normal and the boy not knowing what he is saying pleads guilty."

"They should not bribe one boy with freedom to stool and get his pals sentenced."

"They should keep as they are. They will catch plenty of suckers like me."

"They should watch boys who are getting into trouble and help them out."

"They should send a boy down for a short sentence on first offence, and if that does not help him send him down for a long sentence on the next offence."

"The police should look into a lot of bigger things than those for which we were sent down."

"They should keep up the good work."

"If a boy is up for his first offence, they should not fool with him like they do, but give him six months for a starter, saying if the boy behaves himself he will be released but if he does not he will be held until he is ready to be released, but if the boy is crazy enough to get into trouble again he should be given one year or more and then placed on a farm for a while."

"The police should not pick a boy up on the street corner and lay a charge against him as they do. They picked me up once and laid a charge against me but it did not work for them."

Some of the boys gave personal character answers as follows:—

"They should not try to be police, judge and jury all in one."

"They should be more careful."

"They are too suspicious. When we have money they want to know too much about it."

"They are alright as they are."

"Nothing, both are fair and don't try to send boys here for nothing."

"If they would get some smart guys instead of the dead things they got, they might get some place. (Age 15 years)."

"They talk too much."

"Keep out of joints, such as blind pigs."

"They should be a little more lenient because people are only human, and all have their bad points as well as good ones."

"Go around the streets at night and see what the boys are doing."

"They should try and catch all boys who have bad habits, such as stealing, smoking, drinking liquor or using bad language, and correct them before it is too late."

"Look after their own kids better. Watch the people and give them a warning when they are getting into trouble."

"They treat a boy nice, and talk and reason with him."

"They should not jump at conclusions."

"They should not use filthy language in front of small boys."

The final group of answers stresses things that should be rectified if they exist in reality, as they evidently exist in the minds of some of these boys. These are concrete practical suggestions for all who are dealing with juvenile delinquents.

"They should make you pay for what you steal."

"They should punish you for what you do."

"Be more strict about letting juveniles into pool halls and beer parlors."

"Don't discourage boys by handling them rough on the street."

Final Summary

This survey has shown us the importance of first contact of the child with the law. It must be recognized that wise and just treatment is necessary when dealing with youth, if right attitudes are to be set up.

Defiance and lawlessness are the reactions of rough, dishonest and unwise approaches. The police officer dealing with boys must himself be beyond reproach in character. Swearing, lying, third degree methods, or rough handling will not get the best results from children. Friendly relationships can be built up, and the boy must be made to feel that the police officers exist to help him out of any trouble rather than to way-lay and trap him. The local police force can do a great deal in their own communities to develop co-operation by showing an interest in the local activities of youth, such as boys' clubs, rinks, football fields, etc., organizing safety patrols in schools, getting the corner gangs to welcome the "cops" rather than running away from them, and to sell the idea of helpfulness rather than capture.

One of the biggest contributions of the medical profession is in the field of prevention rather than cure. How much more should prevention be used in the realm of juvenile delinquency! Such a program calls for men of high character and ability, and in every police force some men should be given a period of training in child psychology. Patience, wisdom, justice and courtesy are all evidence of strength. Weak men, impatient, brutal and foul-mouthed do irreparable damage to child life, and multiply work in the field of juvenile delinquency of the future.

"GROWING public interest in problems of delinquency . . . have stimulated efforts to throw an increasing amount of responsibility for the prevention of delinquency away from the court and back upon the community . . . The delinquent, dependent or neglected child cannot be dealt with as an isolated bit of humanity. The seeds of his misconduct, social maladjustment or neglect were sown in the inadequacies and insecurities of his family life and nurtured by the deficiencies of the community's provision for health, educational and recreational services". (*From an Address by Alice Scott Nutt to the National Conference of Social Work, June 1939*).

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Les Oeuvres de Charité Canadiennes-françaises



WITH THE FRENCH-SPEAKING SERVICES

Pauvre et Inquiète

JEANNE BARABE

Bureau d'Assistance aux Familles, Montréal

QUAND Germaine Ladouceur se présenta à mon bureau, un clair matin d'automne, sa figure pâle et tourmentée me frappa profondément. Elle était jeune pourtant, mais la vie avait déjà posé sa griffe sur ce front inquiet, au coin de ces lèvres serrées.

Famille

Née il y a vingt-trois ans dans un quartier ouvrier de notre grande ville, Germaine y fréquenta l'école de sa paroisse jusqu'à l'âge de quinze ans. Ses parents, bien qu'un peu rigides, complétèrent son éducation en lui inculquant de profondes notions de droiture et de respect.

La soeur aînée de Germaine, mariée depuis quelques années déjà à un fils de notaire très connu, fait tout particulièrement l'orgueil de sa mère. Les trois frères plus jeunes n'ont encore pu trouver d'emploi stable, malgré leurs aptitudes et leurs efforts.

Le seul soutien de la famille est donc Monsieur Ladouceur, le père, qui, avec un maigre salaire d'une vingtaine de dollars par semaine, doit pourvoir aux besoins de ces six adultes. Soutien moral des siens, Mme Ladouceur est une de ces femmes simples d'esprit et de coeur, exclusivement dévouée à son mari et à ses enfants. Sa plus grande ambition est de voir ses garçons "bien placés" et ses filles avantageusement mariées.

A ce sujet, Germaine semble lui avoir assez souvent causé de l'anxiété, tant par sa coquetterie que par son entrain dans les nombreuses réunions d'amis des alentours. Madame Ladouceur aurait préféré une jeune fille plus réservée, qui serait demeurée tout le jour

à ses côtés. Mais le contact de Germaine avec les nombreux amis de ses jeunes frères avait contribué, dans une large mesure, à lui donner ce cran, lequel d'ailleurs était loin de lui enlever aucun charme.

A l'âge de vingt ans, Germaine rencontra Paul, ce bon voisin, ami de son frère. Lui en avait vingt-deux. Et ce qui devait arriver arriva. Paul aima Germaine, et Germaine aima Paul, simplement, fortement, comme deux êtres sains et jeunes peuvent le faire.

Pendant deux ans, les deux jeunes gens élaborèrent des projets d'avenir, aussi peu solides que châteaux de cartes. Madame Ladouceur, elle, surveillait sa fille de près et n'aimait guère la voir s'attacher à ce fils de chômeur, sans emploi lui-même. Enfin un jour, elle défendit à Germaine de revoir ce jeune homme. Celle-ci en fut désespérée mais la décision de sa mère était irrévocable. Germaine se soumit donc, en apparence, mais continua de revoir Paul en dehors de la maison.

Elle s'enfermait alors seule le soir dans sa chambre, ne voyait plus ses amis. Sa santé même déperit. Puis un jour, Madame Ladouceur brisa la glace et parla à sa fille à coeur ouvert. A sa grande honte, Germaine lui apprit qu'elle était enceinte. Madame Ladouceur crut en perdre la raison. Quoi! la réputation de la famille serait à tout jamais brisée par cette petite écervelée de Germaine qui s'était mise en tête d'aimer un vaurien! Il fallait à tout prix cacher Germaine. Son père même ne devait rien savoir.

Que faire?

Quant à marier les deux jeunes gens, inutile d'y penser. Paul, d'après Madame Ladouceur, n'est qu'un paresseux, et sa famille à lui refuserait certainement d'aider le jeune couple. Alors, il n'y a pas plusieurs alternatives. Germaine essaiera de se faire admettre dans un hôpital de maternité et attendra. Et puis, quand l'enfant sera né, elle l'abandonnera à une crèche, comme tous ces enfants anonymes qui remplissent les crèches.

Mais le coeur de Germaine se serre, quand elle songe à cette affreuse responsabilité qu'elle va bientôt porter: être mère, avoir un enfant qui sera d'elle, de lui, de deux êtres qui s'aimaient et qui s'aiment encore, et qui ne demanderaient pas mieux que de fonder un foyer.

Oui, cet enfant, il faudra le laisser en soin à des mains étrangères, parce que la vie économique moderne n'étant pas normale, les jeunes ne peuvent plus s'épouser; leurs désirs les plus purs doivent être refoulés, inassouvis, jusqu'au jour où ils éclatent en plein jour pour les écraser et les couvrir de honte. C'est ainsi que raisonnait Germaine, en son coeur de jeune fille de vingt-trois ans.

Paul, lui, impuissant et désespéré, cherche et cherche du travail mais se butte à toutes les portes de boutiques et d'usines, comme un oiseau prisonnier sur les barreaux de sa cage.

Adéline, mise au courant de l'état de sa soeur, se charge, en grande soeur protectrice, de trouver un endroit où Germaine pourra être hébergée. Mais la famille n'a pas d'argent, sauf les quelques dollars que Germaine a mis de côté depuis quelques mois, en travaillant comme vendeuse, une journée par semaine.

Les Maternités privées sont donc exclues, elles coûtent trop cher. C'est la pension de plusieurs mois d'attente qu'il faudra payer, puis l'accouchement, puis l'abandon de l'enfant. Il y a bien aussi des Maternités où l'on peut payer par son temps de service, après l'accouchement. Mais comment Germaine pourra-t-elle donner cinq ou six mois de son temps après la naissance de l'enfant, quand il lui faudra entrer trois mois à l'avance? . . . Et son père? . . . Et ses frères? . . . Et la réputation à sauvegarder? . . . D'autant plus que Germaine ne pourrait pas revenir à la maison pour Noël et le Premier de l'An.

Là où le service social intervient

La Providence se chargeait cependant d'aider Germaine. Une garde-malade d'un service social d'un de nos grands hôpitaux, où Germaine s'était présentée, lui conseilla de se rendre au Bureau d'Assistance aux Familles. Là, une assistante sociale écouta patiemment son histoire, pareille à tant d'autres, et tragique comme elles. Elle reconforta Germaine, en l'assurant de son aide et de sa sympathie. Dès ce moment, puisque la chose était désormais possible, Germaine décida de garder son petit avec elle, envers et contre tous.

L'assistante sociale envoya Germaine à une clinique prénatale où elle devra ensuite se présenter régulièrement. Plusieurs visites furent aussi rendues à Madame Ladouceur, au cours desquelles l'assistante connut mieux la famille. Puis, quand Germaine demanda à partir de chez elle, elle fut placée dans une des maisons protectrices du Bureau d'Assistance aux Familles, où, en compagnie d'une femme intelligente et sensée, la jeune fille put se préparer paisiblement au grand événement. Germaine confectionna elle-même la layette de son bébé, et grâce à la sécurité morale et à l'air pur du milieu, elle récupéra ses forces, calma ses nerfs.

Sur les instances de l'assistante sociale, le père de Germaine fut mis au courant de la situation de sa fille. Après la première fureur passée, il est allé voir Germaine et fut tellement heureux des arrangements qu'il offrit de payer lui-même la pension de la jeune fille.

Quelques semaines plus tard, Germaine accoucha, à l'hôpital où elle avait été suivie, d'un joli garçon de huit livres. Elle accepta de

nourrir son enfant, pour assurer la santé de ce dernier, puis retourna à la maison protectrice du Bureau, où elle se reposa encore quarante jours avec son bébé.

Toute la famille voulut bientôt voir l'enfant et le charme du bambin gagna tous les coeurs. Le père putatif lui-même téléphona à l'assistante sociale pour demander de voir le petit. Un emploi en perspective lui permettrait bientôt de faire des économies et d'épouser Germaine dans un avenir rapproché.

Le Bureau donna au jeune couple l'assurance de son appui lorsqu'il s'agira de l'installation du nouveau domicile. Germaine, en attendant, obtint un emploi régulier de vendeuse et paie elle-même la pension de son enfant. Elle le visite d'ailleurs à tous ses moments libres et Paul, souvent, l'accompagne.

Et c'est ainsi que, grâce au service social des cas individuels, l'amour de deux jeunes gens fut sauvé, en même temps que la santé de l'enfant et la sécurité de la jeune mère.

Petit Guide du Travailleur Social⁽¹⁾

CE VOLUME dont l'auteur est Monsieur l'abbé Jean Viollet, n'est pas de date très récente, mais pour nous, canadiens-français, dont les services sociaux en sont encore au stage de l'organisation, ce livre contient en maints chapitres des conseils très précieux. Nous n'avons pas l'intention de faire la revue de tout le "Petit Guide". Nous attirerons l'attention de nos lecteurs sur deux chapitres en particulier: Qualités du travailleur social et Union et Coordination des Oeuvres.

Qualités du travailleur social

Dès le début de son volume l'abbé Viollet situe le travailleur social qui "apparaît comme l'éducateur de la démocratie, défendant les droits du peuple, sans oublier de lui rappeler ses devoirs". Le travailleur social est devenu nécessaire à nos temps bouleversés, et de plus en plus est-il appelé à y jouer un rôle prépondérant par l'influence qu'il peut exercer sur l'organisation de la famille et de la cité.

Nous sommes portés à croire que le service social ne réclame de ses adeptes que beaucoup de coeur et de bonne volonté. Mais "Pour découvrir la cause de maux qu'il est appelé à soulager et y apporter des remèdes efficaces, le travailleur social doit, en premier lieu, posséder un ensemble de connaissances théoriques et pratiques sans lesquelles

¹En vente à la Confédération générale des Familles, 92, rue du Moulin-Vert, Paris XIVe, France.

ses efforts resteraient vains et inutiles". D'où nécessité pour nos travailleurs sociaux et nos assistantes sociales de suivre les cours qui leur sont destinés dans les écoles de service social, en faisant en même temps, dans les diverses oeuvres, les stages requis par ces mêmes écoles.

Parmi les nombreuses qualités exigées du travailleur social signalons *l'autorité*. Cette dernière sera très influente si elle sait se faire "calme et prudente" et proportionner "ses exigences aux forces et aux capacités de chacun". Elle sait encore éveiller "les énergies morales et provoquer la libre collaboration de ceux sur lesquels elle s'exerce. En toutes circonstances, elle respecte la liberté d'autrui. Bien loin de vouloir dominer les individus, elle est préoccupée d'augmenter leur liberté et leurs énergies; elle s'efforce de libérer les pauvres des oeuvres d'assistance en leur fournissant le moyen d'organiser leur vie sans elles". Le travailleur social vient donc en aide à l'assisté qu'une série de circonstances malheureuses a poussé au bord de l'abîme. Peut-être le malheureux est-il déjà engagé sur la pente qui conduit au désespoir? Le travailleur social, s'inspirant des méthodes du traitement social, entreprendra son relèvement. Réussira-t-il? Vraisemblablement oui, s'il arrive à stimuler les énergies devenues latentes, à développer chez l'individu le sens de ses responsabilités sociales. Mais l'insuccès peut aussi être le résultat de longues années de travail patient. N'oublions pas que nos "clients" sont des êtres humains dont les personnalités sont infiniment variées. Le rendement du travail n'est pas mathématiquement en rapport avec la mesure d'efforts de ceux qui l'accomplissent.

L'auteur met le travailleur social en garde contre les excès de la sensibilité qu'il ne faut pas confondre avec la "charité éclairée par la raison et accompagnée d'une volonté persévérante. Le danger est d'autant plus grave, en matière d'assistance, que rien ne ressemble davantage à la vraie souffrance que la souffrance simulée: ceux qui font métier d'apitoyer les âmes sensibles sont habiles à provoquer la pitié par de fausses apparences; la vraie souffrance, au contraire, se cache par pudeur et par fierté". Au lieu de sensiblerie exagérée, le travailleur social fera preuve d'observation, de perspicacité. Il gagnera la confiance de ceux qu'il aide, et il leur sera loyal en tout et partout. Enfin, il ne fera pas son travail isolément, il utilisera "toutes les compétences sociales et charitables susceptibles d'augmenter son action et de faciliter sa tâche". Il tâchera de travailler "sans relâche à la bonne entente et à la collaboration des oeuvres".

Union et coordination des oeuvres

En France, comme ailleurs, on préconise l'union des oeuvres. Sur notre continent américain, cette réunion se réalise par les "Conseils des Oeuvres" (Council of Social Agencies). Ils groupent les oeuvres d'une

même ville; ils ne cherchent pas à exercer une dictature sur aucune d'entre elles en particulier. Ce sont des organismes qui permettent aux oeuvres de se mieux connaître entre elles. "Chacune d'elles a, d'ordinaire, son objet spécial et bien déterminé, chacune se réserve un domaine propre dans l'ensemble des besoins à secourir; les oeuvres pratiquent la division du travail charitable, et ce sont les besoins qu'elles se partagent et non pas les malheureux". Les oeuvres se connaissant mieux, acquièrent un plan de vision plus large des problèmes sociaux, et de ce fait, s'efforcent d'ajuster leurs rouages à ceux de l'ensemble du mécanisme social qui prévoit à l'amélioration des conditions de vie. Ces Conseils des Oeuvres deviennent donc à la longue un organe d'éducation, car "la bienfaisance privée, en se prolongeant par l'éducation charitable des bienfaiteurs et des obligés, arriverait souvent à guérir le mal par la coordination de tous les efforts, dans certains cas où, pour le moment présent, elle s'épuise à réaliser une oeuvre à peu près aussi décevante que si l'on avait à remplir le tonneau sans fond des Danaïdes".

Dans notre livraison de novembre 1938, Mlle Claire Valin, secrétaire du Conseil des Oeuvres, à Montréal, expliquait à nos lecteurs l'organisation d'un Fichier Central des Oeuvres (Social Service Exchange) telle que nous la concevons de ce côté-ci de l'Atlantique. Le Fichier Central, tout comme le Conseil des Oeuvres, permet aux oeuvres d'une même région de se mieux connaître et il devient un merveilleux instrument de collaboration des oeuvres entre elles et est tout au bénéfice des assistés. Nous ne reviendrons pas sur les explications déjà données par Mlle Valin.¹ Ajoutons simplement avec l'abbé Viollot, "le même indigent, la même famille pauvre connaît les besoins les plus différents, et ressortit par là, non pas à une seule oeuvre, mais plusieurs. Comment ne pas souhaiter qu'un malheureux qui a frappé à une porte pour obtenir le remède à l'une de ses misères, qui a donné lieu de la part d'une oeuvre à une enquête sérieuse et précise, soit conduit par cette oeuvre-là même aux différentes organisations capables de lui venir en aide, au lieu d'avoir à continuer longuement tout seul son douloureux pèlerinage d'oeuvre en oeuvre, d'avoir à s'y présenter partout comme un inconnu, et de donner occasion ainsi à cinq, six, dix enquêtes successives, alors que la première aurait suffi?" Peut-on trouver meilleur plaidoyer en faveur du Fichier Central?

Organisons donc de plus en plus les forces vives de la charité, car là se trouve notre salut. "C'est dans la mesure même où cet effort aboutira à des réalisations positives que l'on verra s'améliorer la vie sociale".

M.H.

¹Cet article a été réimprimé et nous serons heureux d'en faire parvenir gratuitement un exemplaire à ceux qui nous en feront la demande.

Organisation d'un Nouveau Comité Canadien-Français, à Ottawa

SOUS LES AUSPICES de la Section française du Conseil Canadien du Bien-Etre Social une réunion fut tenue, le 13 juin dernier, à laquelle étaient convoquées des personnes bien connues par l'intérêt qu'elles portent aux oeuvres sociales. Cette assemblée avait pour but de former un Comité d'Ottawa qui se chargerait d'intéresser davantage la population canadienne-française d'Ottawa et de Hull aux services offerts par la Division de langue française du Conseil. Les personnes présentes ont pu constater la nécessité d'organiser plus solidement cette Section qui renseigne les individus et les organisations sur les questions sociales.

Voici les noms des officiers et des membres de ce Comité: Présidente, Mme L.-R. La Flèche. Trésorière, Mme J.-C. Woods. Vice-Président, M. C.-A. Séguin, C.R. Secrétaire, Mlle Marie Hamel. Mmes: E.-R. Angers, W. D'Amour, L. de Montigny, F. Desrochers, A.-R. Farley, H.-A. Fortier, L. Lamy, E. Laverdure, P. Leduc, A.-J. Major, R.-J. Manion, P.-E. Marchand, A. Moussette, T. Richard, T. Rinfret, E.-H. Saint-Denis, A. Taché. Mlles: Gabrielle Bourque, Jacqueline de Montigny, Jeanne Dufour, Marie-Rose Turcot. Messrs: Herman Bonneau, Louis Charbonneau, Louvigny de Montigny, E.-L. Parent, J.-O. Patenaude, D.-T. Robichaud. M.H.

Service Social Chrétien

L'EGLISE s'EST toujours préoccupée des déshérités de la vie: c'est le signe évident qu'elle ne perd pas de vue l'esprit de son Divin Fondateur. C'est toujours le même refrain: charité, amour du prochain. Le service rendu au prochain est l'expression extérieure d'une foi vivante; c'est la religion mise en action. Sans ce service il ne saurait y avoir de vrai christianisme. Là où l'Eglise prospère, on peut être assuré de trouver des oeuvres de charité en plein épanouissement . . . De plus en plus, nous éloignons-nous du concept qui veut que la charité chrétienne et le service rendu au prochain soient le moyen par lequel un groupe en serve un autre. Cette attitude est essentiellement démocratique. Elle tend à niveler les inégalités humaines. Tous peuvent servir dans ce ministère du prochain. Les pauvres peuvent y jouer leur rôle tout comme les riches. Nous voyons quel grand bien accomplit autour de nous le mouvement coopératif. Nous constatons également que les nécessiteux s'unissent pour étudier leurs problèmes et protéger leurs propres intérêts. Si nous faillissons à notre mission, et si nous prenons pas occasion de développer chez eux des chefs, eh bien! d'autres se serviront d'eux dans le but d'arriver à leurs fins.

—Extrait de *"The Catholic Charities Review"*, Janvier 1939.

News from the National Federation of Kindergarten, Nursery School and Kindergarten-Primary Teachers

Unacceptable Social Behaviour is Discussed

THE FOLLOWING discussion is the outcome of a suggestion offered by a member of the Federation and is most gratefully received. The suggestion was that this publication should be utilized for the discussion of actual problems of individual children encountered by Kindergarten and Nursery School teachers in their daily practice. A timely suggestion, apparently, for upon looking into educational literature with this idea in view the Editorial Committee was surprised to find practically no useful references bearing directly on this theme.

Magazines and books abound which discuss the theory and practice of educational methods but the response of the individual child is overlooked. It seems that formal education has, in this respect, lagged behind home guidance. The parent is taught to look upon her child as an individual problem in the sense that he requires individual understanding. The teacher is still supposedly breaking in and turning out each year not forty *individuals* but a class of *forty*.

But the teacher knows that this is not so. It is the gaining of the cooperation of a single child; the gradual appearance of interest where there was complete lack of interest; the first aggressive act of the shy child which keeps the educator of the young child ever interested and keen and makes the routine of her year's effort seem worthwhile.

The following discussion is the first of what the Editorial Committee hopes may be a series of such discussions, and with it goes a plea that members of Federation send in an account of their difficulties and how these were solved. (If desired a section might be devoted in each issue to such a discussion).

The problem herein presented is a particularly interesting one, well-pictured by an understanding teacher, (a member of Federation), and has therefore been chosen as the basis for a general discussion.

"I have had the experience of seeing one small boy almost disrupt the harmony of my roomful of happy five- and six-year-old

Kindergarten-Primary pupils—for a whole term. . . . This little savage has failed to respond to all the usual pleas, rebuffs, etc. of his fellows—and is still—at the end of the term, at odds with the world around him.

“Before the children arrive in the classroom, wails and tears announce that “X” is causing trouble in the playground. His idea of play is to give a panther-like leap from behind and land on an unsuspecting playmate’s back, pulling him suddenly to the ground or pushing him forward on his face. My phone is kept busy by irate parents complaining of these tactics on the way to and from school.

“He cannot walk the length of the room without leaving a trail of tears behind. He must break up the boat two children have constructed from blocks; he must knock the ball from the hands of the little girl who is quietly playing; he must push the child who has placed a chair near “Teacher”—from his position; he must make a mad scribble over the carefully executed work of his table partner.

“The children have re-acted against him in such a way that he has practically no friends.

“I have talked quietly with him, and brought this fact to his attention; he has been isolated to work alone in another part of the room; he has been kept behind for days so that the rest of the children may go home unmolested. He sheds bitter tears, apologizes to those he has hurt, makes apparently sincere promises of reform—and immediately he is back with the group, commences all his old tactics.”

Here is obviously what one refers to as an “anti-social” child.

A brief review of what child study has found out concerning social development might help to orient our thinking. Social behaviour, we learn, is acquired and must be learned step by step as is arithmetic, e.g. as adding comes before multiplying so cooperation must come before leadership. The child begins, we are told, as a non-social individual, he becomes interested and watches, he experiments by poking and pushing, next he imitates, then submits to and cooperates with, and finally becomes desirous of directly controlling those around him.

At each step there are acceptable and unacceptable ways of behaving. The child may “control” other children by leadership or he may “control” by bullying and teasing.

This developmental series may cease at any level, resulting in immaturity; the chance learning of unacceptable behaviour may prevent further progress in adequate behaviour or early withdrawal from

people may check social development before the first stage of interest, is accomplished. The practical conclusion to these observations has become plain to us all, namely, that it is the responsibility of those in authority to so arrange the social environment that acceptable behaviour is more useful, satisfactory and more to be enjoyed than is unacceptable behaviour, and that progress while slow is steady and continuous.

With this general pattern to guide us, the present case may be examined. One fact is unmistakable—this child is socially inclined—anti-social, yes—but distinctly social. He is apparently constantly aware of the presence of those around him; his behaviour is aimed to obtain a social response and even to exercise control over the other child. These characteristics are a part of normal social development; wherein does the inadequacy lie?

First, he is *over-social*, is *over-stimulated* by those around him; he cannot forget them or leave them alone.

Secondly, thus aware of and stimulated by the presence of other children, it would appear that he has not learned how to respond adequately to them, nor how to gain their attention by legitimate means, nor how to bring about a cooperative response on their part.

Thirdly, not only has this child no adequate means of behaving socially but in their place he has developed an unsatisfactory habit of finding his only enjoyment in the discomfort of others, his attention from their ostracism.

Fourthly, a vicious circle has been established in which his way of social contact produces anger, fear and dislike; this response on the part of others leads him to behave more unsocially and so the situation grows upon itself.

Supposing that, for the sake of argument, our surmise as deduced above is a correct one, (further clinical data would be necessary before any definite conclusions could be drawn), a general plan of treatment suggests itself. The principles of such a plan are, as reported, already being put into action.

First, the child's interest in individual achievement must be built up (if not already accomplished) to balance his over-social interest. Practically, this would require encouragement and commendation wherever legitimate, the emphasizing of special abilities and seeking out of special interests.

Secondly, positive and acceptable forms of social approach, co-operation and leadership must be learned and learned in such a way that the child finds them to be useful and satisfactory ways of con-

tacting others. This will mean starting back at the first step in social learning.

Thirdly, the old habits must be broken down; the child must have as little opportunity as possible to practice his anti-social forms of behaviour and must, on every possible occasion, receive legitimate consequences should he do so.

To thus displace the old and unacceptable behaviour by new and acceptable behaviour would require in practice almost constant adult supervision, a difficult undertaking in a large class. That, with a little ingenuity, much can be done has already been indicated. Following upon the treatment already under way, the teacher might go a step further. Assuming that the child must begin at the very beginning of social learning and that his task is going to be for him a difficult one, he might be taken from the group entirely having his place alone in the classroom for a week or two. Following this, he might be re-introduced to sit among the group *for short intervals* (definitely timed) with commendation if he does not interfere (and a return to his place alone when he does). Thus, by shortening his task it becomes easier and so gives an opportunity for achievement while, at the same time, cutting down the practice of unacceptable behaviour. (No matter how short it is necessary to make these test periods success *must* be insured).

While the above plan is in action, positive cooperation and legitimate social attention might be planned during organized class activity. Situations could be arranged in which, along with the work of others in the group, the attention of the class is drawn to his activities; small responsibilities might be entrusted to him. The teacher herself might, when she has a free moment, take him among the group pointing out and interesting him in the activity of the other children, finding a reason for allowing him to work for a few minutes, under her supervision, with another child, or bringing another child to work with him for a short period. In this way he would have a chance to experience the pleasure of working beside or with another on a common project; in short, that, in every way possible, unpleasantness be anticipated and forestalled and constructive social interest substituted—(even to the extent of the teacher accompanying the child without comment as he walks through the class or marches to and from the classroom).

Outside the classroom the situation is more difficult and whether anything can be accomplished would depend upon whether the teacher had the opportunity to act. It would be necessary to shorten the child's periods of play and to supervise these, perhaps by letting him, accompanied by the teacher, watch for a time and so become interested in the children and their games; later, by allowing him the choice of joining the activity without disturbance or playing alone and so guiding

him through his successes and administering the consequence (removal to play alone inside) when he failed.

Most essential of all, and the part of the report which we must read between the lines, is the teacher's attitude not on one or two occasions but throughout. Her first job will be to establish a friendly rapport with the child, which will make him feel that she is working with him, is interested in helping him to success and is not disheartened by his failures. She can only make him believe this if she, herself, feels it.

SUGGESTED REFERENCES

Blatz, W. E. and Bott, H.—*The Management of Young Children*—discipline as guidance.

Morgan, J. J. B.—*The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*. 1931—provides an understanding of the mental conditions behind our difficulties.

Thom, D. A.—*Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child*.

Book News

Child Study, April 1939: Sidonie M. Gruenberg—"Shall It Be Camp This Summer?" As a discussion of how camp life completes the child's educational experience this presents information and a point of view valuable to every teacher. *Child Study*, May 1939: Sidonie M. Gruenberg—"Woman's Place Today". The challenge to women of today is to do pioneering of a most constructive kind, both individually and through organized groups.

Progressive Education, May 1939: Freda Pepper—"Creative Expression for All Children". A brief story of "Children's House", a creative art centre for all children.

The School, June 1939: K. E. Eardley—"Kindergarten Activities for June". Practical suggestions for sewing with oilcloth and using discards.

Summer News

1. The New Education Fellowship European Conference will take place in Paris, August 3rd to 10th. Theme—Teachers and the Realization of the Democratic Ideal.
2. Judging from the article "Johnny's So Long at the Fair" in *Child Study*, April 1939, it would be well worth while for every teacher to spend a day in the "Children's World" at the New York World's Fair. There will be demonstrations of playgrounds, toys and a project entitled "The Trip Around the World".

3. The World Federation of Education Associations is meeting in Rio de Janeiro, South America, in August. The meeting will discuss "Children Today—Guiding Them and How They Learn".
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Teachers' Notebook

We are happy to announce that the Circulating Library for Nursery School Kindergarten and Kindergarten-Primary Teachers is now operating. If any of our readers have any suggestions to offer or want to have a particular book included in the Library, the Librarian will be very glad to give her co-operation.

The Bi-Annual Conference of the National Federation of Nursery School, Kindergarten, Kindergarten-Primary Teachers will be held in Toronto at the Royal York Hotel, Saturday, October 21, 1939. The programme will be practical and we, who have seen the plans, can assure you that every teacher who attends this Convention will go away with some useful, workable ideas which she can apply in her own class room on Monday morning.

Canadian Welfare Council

Founded in Ottawa, in 1923, as the result of a National Conference of Child Welfare Workers, convened by the Child Welfare Division, Dominion Department of Health.
COUNCIL HOUSE, 245 COOPER ST., OTTAWA, CANADA.

OBJECT

- (1) To create throughout the Dominion of Canada an informed public opinion on problems in the field of social welfare.
- (2) To assist in the promotion of standards and services which are based on scientific principles and which have been proved effective in practical experience.

METHODS

- (1) The preparation and publication of literature, arrangement of lectures, addresses, radio and film material, etc., and general educational propaganda in social welfare.
- (2) Conferences. (3) Field Studies and Surveys. (4) Research.

MEMBERSHIP

- The membership shall be of two groups: organization and individual.
- (1) Organization membership shall be open to any organization, institution or group having the program of Canadian Social Welfare wholly or in part included in their programs, articles of incorporation, or other statement of incorporation.
- (2) Individual membership shall be open to any individual interested in or engaged in Welfare work, upon payment of the fee, whether that individual is in work, under any government in Canada, or not.

FEES

1. Sustaining Members..... Annual Fee, \$50.00 — Representatives: 3
2. National Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$25.00 — Representatives: 3
3. Provincial Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$15.00 — Representatives: 3
4. Municipal Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$7.50 — Representatives: 1
5. Individual Members..... Annual Fee, \$1.00 — Representatives: 1
6. Annual Non-Member subscription—The WELFARE Summary..... \$1.50

In electing the Governing Board and the Executive, all members will be grouped according to their registration by the Treasurer.

Every member will receive a copy of the proceedings of the Annual Conference and such other publications as may be published from time to time.

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